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ABSTRACT

Written by teachers, the manual contains nine chapters designed to help regular and special education teachers teach social studies to handicapped students in the mainstreamed setting. Chapters have the following titles and authors: "Social Studies in the Mainstreamed Classroom, K-6" (A. Ochoa, S. Shuster); "My Place in Space--Painting Maps on Classroom Floors" (L. Dunne, O. Knudsen); "Teaching Strategies for Middle-Level Handicapped Students" (L. Barnard); "Modifying Study Guides, Practice and Tests for Students with Learning Difficulties at the Secondary Level" (A. Schlick, et al.); "Cooperative Teaching of Senior High Social Studies to Handicapped Students" (R. Lipelt, K. Meyers); "Improving the Handicapped Student's Self-Concept--Classroom Strategies" (G. Elovitz); "The Open Classroom Approach to Teaching Secondary Social Studies for All Students" (L. Biemer); "Notes on Teaching History to Socially, Intellectually, or Academically Handicapped High School Students" (G. Casteel); and "Teaching Social Studies to Low-Achieving Students in the Secondary School" (D. Wiseman, et al.). (DB)

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Terry Shaw, Editor

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Teaching Handicapped Students

SOCIAL STUDIES

EC141147

A National Education Association Publication

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CONTENTS

FOREWORD 7

1. SOCIAL STUDIES IN THE MAINSTREAMED CLASSROOM, K-6
Anna S. Ochoa and Susan K. Shuster 8

2. MY PLACE IN SPACE: PAINTING MAPS ON CLASSROOM FLOORS
Loretta A. Dunne and Olive Knudsen 26

3. TEACHING STRATEGIES FOR MIDDLE-LEVEL HANDICAPPED STUDENTS
Loretta E. Barnard 29

4. MODIFYING STUDY GUIDES, PRACTICE AND TESTS FOR STUDENTS WITH LEARNING DIFFICULTIES AT THE SECONDARY LEVEL
Anne Rogers Schlick, Margaret Gall, and R. Hunt Riegel 33

5. COOPERATIVE TEACHING OF SENIOR HIGH SOCIAL STUDIES TO HANDICAPPED STUDENTS
Roger Lipelt and Katy Meyers 45

6. IMPROVING THE HANDICAPPED STUDENT'S SELF-CONCEPT: CLASSROOM STRATEGIES
Gerald P. Elovitz 48

7. THE OPEN CLASSROOM APPROACH TO TEACHING SECONDARY SOCIAL STUDIES FOR ALL STUDENTS
Linda Biemer 51

8. NOTES ON TEACHING HISTORY TO SOCIALLY, INTELLECTUALLY, OR ACADEMICALLY HANDICAPPED HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS
Glenna G. Casteel 55

9. TEACHING SOCIAL STUDIES TO LOW-ACHIEVING STUDENTS IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL
Douglas E. Wiseman, Anthony K. Van Reusen, and L. Kay Hartwell 57

The Editor

Terry Shaw, a teacher of ninth and tenth grade remedial students, is presently the Language Arts Chairman of the Windsor Forest High School, Savannah, Georgia. At Windsor Forest he has developed a two-year team teaching program for coordinating language arts and social studies skills for remedial students. His selections for this book represent materials which he feels are especially pertinent and practical for social studies classroom teachers.

FOREWORD

Prepared by the

NEA Committee on Education of the Handicapped

Public Law 94-142, The Education for All Handicapped Children Act, the major federal education legislation for providing a free appropriate education for all handicapped children, must be in compliance with Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973. Part D of Section 504 states, in part:

> The quality of the educational services provided to handicapped students must be equal to that of the services provided to nonhandicapped students; thus, handicapped students' teachers must be trained in the instruction of persons with the handicap in question and *appropriate materials and equipment must be available.*

This federal regulation is supported by NEA policy. Point (e) of NEA Resolution 79-32, Education for All Handicapped Children, reads:

> The appropriateness of educational methods, materials, and supportive services must be determined in cooperation with classroom teachers.

In the context of federal education policy and NEA policy, members of the NEA Committee on Education of the Handicapped have reviewed *Teaching Handicapped Students Social Studies*. Members of the Committee are teachers of English, social studies, mathematics, special education, and science who teach both general and handicapped students in elementary and high school.

The Committee cannot emphasize too strongly the importance of teachers of regular and special education working together. The Committee would also like to urge both groups of educators to use these publications in teaching content areas to handicapped students. Members of the Committee were particularly pleased that teachers wrote these materials, in an effort to successfully teach the handicapped in the least restrictive environment. Because of their firsthand knowledge of proper teaching strategies, teachers are the best source of information to aid their colleagues.

The NEA supports P.L. 94-142 because the Association is committed to education processes which allow all students to become constructive, functioning members of their communities. To this end, when handicapped students are appropriately placed in classrooms with nonhandicapped students, teachers need instructional strategies which provide for individual learning differences. This is not new. However, most regular education teachers have not been trained, as mandated by law, in pre-service or in-service experiences to work with students with handicapping conditions. Teachers are eager to carry out the mandate of the law, but they may shy away from or even object to teaching these students because of this lack of training.

The so-called "mainstreamed" classroom presents new challenges to regular classroom teachers because of the added responsibility of teaching students with handicapping conditions. It is particularly important, therefore, to understand the student with a handicapping condition as a whole person in order to emphasize this commonality among all students.

1. SOCIAL STUDIES IN THE MAINSTREAMED CLASSROOM, K-6*

by Anna. S. Ochoa and Susan K. Shuster

For teachers in grades K-6, this chapter reviews goals for teaching social studies with special emphasis on the handicapped learner. Also included are descriptions of seven types of handicaps and practical guidelines to help plan appropriate lessons and modify basic social studies texts and other classroom materials. Anna S. Ochoa and Susan K. Shuster are both with Indiana University. Ms. Ochoa is a past president of the National Council for the Social Studies and Ms. Shuster's area of expertise is special education.

Goals are the ideal outcomes toward which the curriculum is directed. In order to determine what social studies goals we should seek to attain with handicapped learners, we need to begin by examining the goals identified for nonhandicapped learners and ask whether they should be modified for children with various kinds of disabilities.

Social studies goals are primarily concerned with the preparation of citizens who are willing and able to assume responsibility for the welfare of others and of their community, nation, and world. Responsible citizens write letters to newspapers and elected officials, circulate and sign petitions, join and form civic groups and organizations, work on political campaigns, and vote. To participate in these efforts effectively, citizens need to be informed, skillful, committed, and active. By providing appropriate learning experiences, schools can, through their social studies programs, contribute substantially to every individual's development as a citizen.

The four categories of social studies goals identified by the National Council for the Social Studies are knowledge, skills, values, and social participation (Osborn et al. 1979). These goals permeate the social studies curriculum irrespective of the age, grade level, socioeconomic status, racial/ethnic background, or handicapping condition of a student. The four categories are elaborated below.

Knowledge. One major purpose of the knowledge transmitted in social studies classes is to help students describe and explain the social world and its many peoples, places, practices, and problems. The social sciences (history, geography, economics, political science, sociology, anthropology, and sometimes psychology) constitute one dimension of social studies knowledge; concepts and generalizations drawn from these disciplines are consistently found in elementary social studies programs. Such concepts as social group, family, role, cooperation, interdependence, urban area, change, and conflict are commonly taught. Each of these concepts describes an important aspect of the social world, and each is transferable—it can be applied to many situations. Once learned, each concept provides a way of organizing social reality. Such generalizations as the following also receive attention:

—People everywhere have the same basic needs.

—In different cultures, people adapt to the physical environment in different ways.

These statements are conclusions that have been made on the basis of scientific investigation. Each describes or explains an aspect of social reality. Generally, they are transferable across places and across time. Knowledge of these generalizations furthers understanding of the social world.

Social issues constitute another important aspect of the knowledge base of social studies. Understanding social issues that are likely to persist over time is essential for responsible citizenship. Among these issues are pollution, racism/prejudice, sexism, civil rights, and crime. The foundation for understanding these issues can be laid in the elementary grades.

These knowledge goals—the understanding of concepts, generalizations, and social issues—are an essential part of the preparation of all young people for participation in a democratic society.

*Reprinted with permission from *Social Studies in the Mainstreamed Classroom, K-6* (Boulder, Colo.: Social Science Education Consortium and ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education, 1980. This book may be ordered from SSEC Publications, 855 Broadway, Boulder, Colo. 80302 (ISBN 0-89994-242-3; $11.95); please enclose prepayment or institutional purchase order.

Skills. Among the abilities that students are expected to acquire within the context of social studies are thinking skills, data-processing skills, and human-relations skills.

The term *thinking skills* refers to more than the ability to merely remember or memorize. These skills include the ability to analyze, evaluate, interpret, relate ideas, identify evidence, and separate fact from opinion. Data-processing skills include interpreting maps, globes, charts, graphs, cartoons, reading materials, and audiovisual presentations. Human-relations skills involve the ability to listen, to trust and be trusted, to communicate effectively (both orally and in writing), and to empathize with others. Because all these skills play important roles in the preparation of citizens, all children must be afforded the opportunity to acquire them.

Values. Valuing and decision making go hand in hand. In order to be complete individuals and to possess integrity as social beings, we need to know what our values are and be able to make decisions that are consistent with them. Guided by the importance of human dignity (the idea that each individual and all peoples have worth) as an overarching value, social studies provides the context for the examination of one's own values and decision-making processes.

Social Participation. Social participation involves direct experiences in acting on a set of values. The emphasis here is on direct rather than vicarious experiences. Reading, observing, and role playing alone are not sufficient to provide the necessary experience needed to participate effectively; students must also have opportunities to examine actual problems and decide what to do about them. Subsequent actions might take the form of seeing to it that an unsightly corner lot is cleaned up or planning an assembly that dramatizes the contributions of various ethnic groups. Social-participation experiences provide opportunities to develop leadership skills, group membership responsibilities, and confidence in being able to influence the social environment. At all grade levels, students can benefit greatly from participation experiences that are appropriate to their ages and abilities.

Obviously, learners will vary in the extent to which these goals are achieved. Some will not meet the intellectual challenges involved, some won't develop the necessary reasoning skills, and others won't display a commitment to actively participate in civic affairs

The reasons for lack of achievement will also vary. Some children from low socioeconomic backgrounds will not see the value of social and political participation; students with below-average intellectual ability may not be able to grasp complex ideas and master social and political skills; because of their handicapping conditions, some students may not be able to develop adequate communication skills or understand abstract ideas. The fact that some learners will not attain these goals fully is not a reason to alter the goals; rather, the challenge to teachers is one of finding ways to increase the likelihood that learners will achieve these goals. In this sense, the situation in social studies is no different from that in math, where it is hoped that by the end of the fourth grade all youngsters will know their multiplication tables: teachers know at the outset that not all children will be successful, but they are not deterred from making as much progress as they can toward this goal.

There is reason to give special emphasis to these goals with handicapped learners. Because of their handicaps, these youngsters have been set apart and even segregated. In the eyes of many, they deserve pity but not first-class citizenship. As a result, they may experience alienation and a weak sense of connection to others and to society. The compelling reason behind mainstreaming is to end this isolation and to place youngsters in the least-restrictive environment in which they can maximize their academic and social potential.

Handicapped persons constitute 11 percent of the population. Our society cannot afford to risk their alienation and withdrawal. Every bit as much as a nonhandicapped child, a handicapped youngster needs to gain the knowledge, skills, and values that will enhance the quality of life and citizenship.

Obviously, with certain kinds of handicapped learners, instructional goals for social studies must be tempered by reality. For example, a mentally handicapped child who cannot easily transfer what is learned in one setting to another and who does not comprehend the meaning of social situations will probably not realize these goals fully. Learning human-relations skills may, for such youngsters, be difficult. Some abstract ideas—for example, social justice, democracy, freedom—may be beyond their comprehension. For some of the more-severely retarded, the social studies program may be limited to teaching very concrete concepts and skills (handling money, riding a bus, preparing simple meals, telling time). For others with less severe mental handicaps, every opportunity should be provided to move as far as they can toward achieving the instructional goals identified for all learners.

Children with learning disabilities generally have few social problems, and their verbal skills are usually intact. Their problems are largely academic—often in the areas of reading, writing, and math. Obviously, such children are likely to have difficulty with lessons and activities that require reading or writing skills. Understanding concepts, generalizations, and social issues is likely to be a problem; much will depend on how they are expected to learn and express themselves. Providing examples of those abstract ideas that are immediate to their lives will facilitate their

comprehension of such ideas. The extra effort required to do this on the part of the teacher will be well spent if these children are able to make progress.

Although the academic abilities of emotionally handicapped children may not be impaired, their emotional problems are likely to interfere with learning. Special consideration must be given to the design of the physical environment, the organization of the lessons, and strategies for managing disruptive behavior.

Children with hearing disorders, visual impairments, or speech defects present certain constraints, but their cognitive abilities are not necessarily affected by their handicaps. The hard-of-hearing may have some difficulty relating to others socially, and children with speech defects obviously will have some trouble communicating; however, these limitations are not sufficient to impede goal attainment in the social studies area.

Theoretically, the goals of social studies should remain intact for all learners. Realistically, the more severe the handicapping condition, the more these goals must be modified or prioritized. However, it is of paramount importance that teachers not set their expectations too low. Expectations have a way of becoming ceilings, and we seldom get more than we expect in the area of learning and school achievement.

An understanding of handicapping conditions and associated learning problems is essential for teachers in mainstreamed classrooms. The strategies used in achieving instructional goals may need modification to allow for the specific learning problems of each handicapped student.

No teacher is expected to be an expert on all handicaps or to instinctively know how to make such adjustments. Rather, the teacher's role is to be flexible in considering alternative paths to a goal. Resource teachers and other support personnel are valuable sources of help in diagnosing a student's learning problem and planning instruction.

The ideal way of designing an instructional program for each handicapped student is to assemble a team consisting of various school personnel and the child's parents. Working together, these persons can diagnose the strengths and needs of each child. That is what mainstreaming is all about. Generalizations for teaching any given category of handicapped children may not be applicable to a particular child in that category. However, it is possible to identify certain general statements that can serve as basic hypotheses for planning alternative approaches to instruction.

The basic information and practical guidelines which follow are designed to help classroom teachers plan appropriate lessons and modify the strategies suggested in basic social studies texts and other classroom materials. Seven types of handicapping conditions are addressed: mental retardation, learning disabilities, hearing impairments, emotional handicaps, visual impairments, speech and language disorders, and physical disabilities. For each handicapping condition, descriptions have been provided of (1) the nature of the condition, (2) learning problems typically associated with the handicapping condition and their implications for social studies instruction, and (3) strategies for modifying instruction in order to achieve social studies goals.

MENTAL RETARDATION

Nature of the Condition

The child who is labeled *mentally retarded* functions at a below-average intellectual level and displays deficiencies in adaptive behavior.

The term *subaverage general intellectual functioning* is used to describe performance on a standardized test of intelligence that is more than two standard deviations below the mean. On such tests as the Stanford-Binet or the Revised Wechsler Intelligence Scale, in which the mean is 100, a score of 68 or below classifies a child as retarded.

Adaptive behavior is another term for social competence. Appropriate adaptive behavior skills vary according to age level; for a pre-schooler, such skills might include the ability to feed oneself, while appropriate adaptive behavior for a teenager might be to reach a given destination alone and on time. Appropriate adaptive behavior also varies with context. A teenager who lives in the city and is able to cope with the subway system has adequate adaptive skills in terms of self-mobility. A teenager who lives in a rural community and knows how to operate a certain piece of farming equipment has adequate adaptive skills in terms of vocational competence.

Some people argue that the social system determines whether a child is retarded. They see the school as a social system with expectations that certain children do not meet; those children are then labeled as retarded.

The most useful classification system for retarded persons is based on the severity of the condition. The terms used are *mild, moderate, severe,* and *profound.* The mildly retarded—more-commonly called the *educable mentally retarded* (EMR)—are most likely to be considered for mainstreaming placements.

The cause of mental retardation can be organic (the result of accident or injury before, during, or after birth) or cultural/familial (the result of a deprived environment or genetic factors). However, the distinction between the two categories is of limited importance for educational

planning because the behavioral characteristics associated with each are not necessarily different. For example, a child with brain damage may be highly distractible, but this same behavior may be present in a child with no organic impairment who comes from a deprived home. The following generalizations about mental retardation are important to remember:

—Most mildly mentally handicapped children are not diagnosed until they enter school (when intellectual demands greatly increase).

—Most mildly mentally handicapped children "look like" children of normal intelligence.

—The exact cause (s) of mental retardation may be difficult to identify; a "poor" or psychosocially deprived environment may contribute to this condition, but this is difficult to document.

Associated Learning Problems

The mildly mentally retarded child has one more of the following learning-related problems:

—Difficulty in dealing simultaneously with a variety of stimuli (thus easily distracted and possessing a short attention span).

—Lack of ability to "catch on" as quickly as children who are not mentally handicapped (however, once a task is learned, such children often can perform as well as nonhandicapped children).

—Deficiency in short-term memory, attributable to inability to organize or rehearse (long-term memory may not be deficient; the severity of memory deficit is usually related to the level of retardation).

—Language difficulties (with the severity of these generally related to the severity of the mental retardation).

—Difficulty in reading.

—Deficiency in arithmetic reasoning (although arithmetic computation may be satisfactory once skills have been learned thoroughly).

—Poor abstract reasoning ability; concepts that are difficult to portray in concrete or pictorial fashion may not be understood (for example, *democracy, loyalty*).

—Limited ability to plan ahead and foresee outcomes or learn from past experiences.

—Difficulty in applying learning from one situation to another.

All in all, it is important to keep in mind that the learning characteristics of the mildly mentally handicapped do not differ from those of other children—Mentally handicapped children go through the same stages, but at a slower rate. Mentally retarded children lag behind their chronological age peers in all areas of achievement, especially in reading comprehension. Obviously, this difficulty affects such a child's comprehension of the reading materials used in social studies lessons.

Knowledge and skill acquisition happens more slowly for mentally retarded youngsters. Extensive effort will be needed to ensure that they are attending to learning tasks. The use of concrete and pictorial representations will greatly facilitate learning. Knowledge and skills acquired in one situation will need to be taught again in other situations.

Learning of values and skills in social participation also occurs at a slower rate in the mentally handicapped. Realistic, immediate experiences must be provided if such children are to comprehend the meaning of lessons focusing on this area.

Social studies for the mentally retarded offers essential opportunities for the enhancement of socially adaptive behavior. However, the learning objectives identified for each child must reflect concern for the child's eventual place in the community. For example, map-reading skills may be very important in terms of the child's local environment. Concrete "props" may need to be incorporated into lessons dealing with this area of skill development—in the form, say, of three-dimensional buildings similar to buildings in child's repertoire of experiences. The broad goals of social studies need not be altered for the mentally handicapped, but specific objectives must be realistic in terms of each child's potential.

Strategies for Modifying Instruction

Given the learning characteristics of the mildly mentally retarded, in particular their slower rate of learning, it is important to provide extended readiness experiences and opportunities to manipulate three-dimensional objects.

In order to enhance the child's abilities to attend to a task and to transfer learning from one situation to another, the teacher will need to design very carefully sequenced lessons. The use of experiences within the child's immediate environment is essential. A child who is provided with meaningful, understandable examples will more easily acquire the knowledge, skills, or values being presented.

Repeated exposure to the same material will be necessary; repetition is important because it enables the child to rehearse what is to be learned. However, if not carefully designed and presented, repetition of content may become boring or tedious for the child.

The need for continuous and immediate feedback cannot be over-emphasized. Reinforcement for task completion, independent work, and appropriate social behavior are especially needed. The teacher will need to continually assess and report progress, because the child's

performance is likely to be erratic rather than consistent.

In addition to suggestions that cut across all areas, several modifications have particular utility for one or more of the four categories of social studies goals. These are listed in Table 1.

LEARNING DISABILITIES

Nature of the Condition

The field of learning disabilities is the newest category of special education. The interest in this area evolved as a result of a growing awareness that a large number of children were not receiving appropriate educational services. These children were not achieving at their expected potential, although they were within the normal range of intelligence.

The causes of learning disabilities are difficult to identify. Some people claim that they are due to "minimal brain damage." Others blame hereditary factors, the environment, or poor teaching. Lately the interest has been shifting from causes to solutions. One area that holds great promise is the study of food additives, which have been linked to hyperactivity.

Associated Learning Problems

The learning-disabled child may have one or more of the following learning-related problems:

—Difficulty in integrating and organizing data (although the child may learn and acquire specific skills with relative ease).

—Delay in achieving fine motor coordination.

—Inability to keep attention focused on the lesson.

—Difficulty in differentiating between important relevant stimuli and unimportant or irrelevant stimuli; thus other children or strange sounds may be unusually distracting.

—Inability to coordinate hand movements with vision.

—Difficulty in performing such perceptual discrimination tasks as recognizing differences in visually presented materials, sounds, or movements.

—Deficits in one or more scholastic areas; reading problems are the most prevalent.

—Tendency to become easily frustrated when routines change or work cannot be completed; the learning-disabled child tends to be an unhappy child with low self-esteem.

—Tendency to act impulsively; this particular kind of problem corresponds with distractability and hyperactivity.

Most learning-disabled children should be able to achieve social studies objectives as well as their nonhandicapped peers. Much will depend on their attending behavior and motivation and on the extent to which their impulsiveness or distractibility interferes with learning.

The structure of the learning task is very important for such students. If the learning objective and the student's role are clear, and if the student is assisted in staying "on task," distractions are decreased and achievement potential is increased. Accurate assessment of learner achievement will necessitate the development of techniques which minimize the child's need for well-developed fine motor skills and coordination. The use of paper-and-pencil tests will not suffice as a measurement tool for this group of students.

Strategies for Modifying Instruction

When one thinks of learning-disabled children and their particular learning problems, one can begin to identify basic instructional modifications that apply not only to social studies but to all facets of the elementary program. Some such children may profit from multisensory methods—that is, using a combination of sensory systems in the educational process. For example, when discussing the concept "old," present objects that are old and new for the child to touch. Present pictures describing the concept, and provide opportunities for children to express themselves in relation to the lesson.

Any child who is easily distracted will require a highly structured (teacher-directed) learning experience with a minimum of extraneous stimulation. This may mean the provision of a private study space; it also means that the lesson must have a clear-cut objective and that each student must understand his or her own role or assignment. A high level of distractibility also suggests the use of deductive lessons instead of inductive ones for teaching concepts and generalizations.

Behavior modification techniques have been used successfully with youngsters who are distractible and hyperactive. These techniques include reinforcers—usually tokens or checkmarks that can be turned in for prizes—which are given for attending and for "on task" behaviors. Such reinforcers should be given across several modalities. A verbal "well done" or a pat on the back may greatly enhance the check mark on a paper or chart.

Training in self-observation, self-evaluation, and self-reinforcement has been successful with learning-disabled children. Another strategy is to teach children to analyze task requirements and to describe the steps of a task before performing them.

In some instances, drugs are prescribed in an effort to change behavior. Since much controversy surrounds their use, it is critical that all "educational" treatments be

Table 1

MODIFICATION OF SOCIAL STUDIES INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES FOR A MENTALLY RETARDED STUDENT

	Goal Category			
	Knowledge	Skills	Values	Social Participation
Description of Learning Goal(s)	Concepts and generalizations from the social sciences; patterns and systems in the environment; social issues	Analyzing, synthesizing, evaluating; data processing; human relations	Awareness of and appreciation for differences in people	Active involvement in the solution of social problems
Suggested Instructional Strategies	Use concrete, three-dimensional materials, visuals, recordings Minimize reading mode for enhancing knowledge Present ideas one at a time, carefully sequenced	Keep tasks simple with clear instructions Consider the child's comprehension level, not chronological age, in determining skills to be learned Provide data that are meaningful to the child Provide positive recognition for each task completed Provide individualized instruction (using peers, perhaps) Use a variety of modes for determination of skill acquisition Use modeling and role play for teaching social relations Provide opportunities to practice social relations skills	Use immediate environment Make examples meaningful Make applications very specific	Use real-life experiences Use immediate environment; gradually expand into the larger environment of the child

explored first. Medical treatment should be sought only as a last resort; and, when drugs are in use, dosage must be carefully monitored.

In addition to these basic suggestions that cut across all academic areas, several modifications that have particular utility within certain goal areas are suggested in Table 2, which is organized according to the four goals of the social studies.

HEARING IMPAIRMENTS

Nature of the Condition

The term *hearing impaired* refers to persons who are deaf or hard of hearing. The word *deaf* describes a person with a hearing impairment so severe that he or she cannot process linguistic information, with or without a hearing aid. A *hard-of-hearing* person, generally with the assistance of a hearing aid, has enough hearing to successfully process linguistic information through auditory stimulation. The problem for educators is one of determining the extent to which the hearing loss is likely to affect the child's ability to speak and develop language.

The causes of hearing loss are related to the location of the problem within the hearing mechanism. Infections, objects put into the ear by a child, tumors, buildup of earwax, or a perforated eardrum can cause impairments of the outer ear. Middle-ear troubles occur because of some malfunction of one of the parts as a result of an allergy or tumor. Inner-ear disorders are usually caused by hereditary factors and sometimes by viruses, infections, blows to the head, or exposure to excessive noise levels.

Associated Learning Problems

The most severely affected area of development is the ability to learn language and speech. While hearing impairment is a great barrier to normal language development, most deaf people can be taught some use of oral language. However, extensive training is needed if the child is to develop normal language, and even with training some children will never develop normal language.

It is not likely that a deaf child will be placed in a regular classroom; however, a hard-of-hearing child may very well be placed in a mainstreamed setting. The remainder of this section will address the needs of the hard of hearing.

The hard-of-hearing child is likely to have the following learning problems:

—Impaired reading ability, which relies heavily on language skills.

—Difficulty in communicating or relating with peers and others, especially if the child has grown up in relative isolation; such a child may be either shy and withdrawn or overaggressive.

—Unintelligible speech or unusual voice quality and pitch.

—Difficulty in understanding directions and questions.

It is very likely that hearing-impaired children will be deficient in academic achievement, primarily in reading but probably in other areas as well. Much will depend on the individual youngster's intelligence and motivation. The problem that cuts across all areas is one of communication—communication between teacher and child and between child and adults and other children.

Strategies for Modifying Instruction

Several recommended modifications are related to the physical characteristics of the learning environment and the behavior of the teacher. A hearing impaired child should sit in the front of the room—preferably off to one side, so that he or she can easily see both teacher and classmates. To maximize the child's opportunities to lipread, try to remain about six feet away from the child, speak naturally, and stand still when talking. Remember not to turn your back to the class and talk while writing on the board. If you need to repeat something, try to rephrase the statement.

Irrespective of the task, it is important to get the child's attention before making an assignment or asking a question. The child may need help in attending, especially if auditory or visual distractors are present. Emphasis on visual stimuli is essential.

In addition to these suggestions, which cut across all subject and goal areas, several modifications have particular utility for achieving certain social studies goals. These are listed on Table 3.

EMOTIONAL HANDICAPS

Nature of the Condition

There is no universally accepted definition of an emotionally disturbed child. Futhermore, although there are many different theories about the origin, nature, and cure of emotional disturbance in children, there is no generally agreed-on classification system. The most obvious symptom is inability to establish close and satisfying emotional ties with other people. Other children are not attracted to disturbed children, and adults are often bothered by their "disturbing" behavior. Some emotionally handicapped children withdraw from social interac-

Table 2

MODIFICATION OF SOCIAL STUDIES INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES FOR A LEARNING-DISABLED STUDENT

	Goal Category			
	Knowledge	Skills	Values	Social Participation
Description of Learning Goal(s)	Concepts and generalizations from the social sciences; patterns and systems in the environment; social issues	Analyzing, synthesizing, evaluating; data processing; human relations	Awareness of and appreciation for differences in people	Active involvement in the solution of social problems
Suggested Instructional Strategies	Use the child's strongest modality (sense) when presenting information Use several modalities in an integrated manner (child silently reads printed page while teacher reads it aloud) Use varied output modes (writing, speaking, gestures); combine writing with oral responses Assist the child in maintaining attention by cueing or tracking (following along with a pencil or finger) Minimize distractions	Provide much recognition for tasks completed Design contracts for task completion Use modeling techniques for teaching about human relations Carefully design tasks requiring perceptual skills and motor coordination Design tasks for the child at or below instructional level Provide ample opportunities for the child to experience success	Use small discussion groups for short periods of time Make application to realistic, relevant groups in the child's world Minimize the use of information-processing skills to develop objectives in this area.	

Table 3

MODIFICATION OF SOCIAL STUDIES INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES FOR A HARD-OF-HEARING STUDENT

	Goal Category			
	Knowledge	Skills	Values	Social Participation
Description of Learning Goal(s)	Concepts and generalizations from the social sciences; patterns and systems in the environment; social issues	Analyzing, synthesizing, evaluating; data processing; human relations	Awareness of and appreciation for differences in people	Active involvement in the solution of social problems
Suggested Instructional Strategies	Increase awareness of the child's own body image Expand the child's concept of his or her environment and family relationships Emphasize visual mode for presenting information Use concrete, three-dimensional materials whenever possible	Increase the child's listening sensitivity for a variety of sounds and extend his auditory sounds Provide opportunities for development of the child's motor skills Expand the child's vocabulary Assist the child in acquiring classification skills Emphasize functional application of skills Use visual mode for presenting material whenever possible (captioned films, labeled objects)	Provide opportunities for the child to feel worthy and secure Use small-group discussions for value analysis, in which other students face impaired child when they speak	Encourage child to participate whenever possible (recognizing that the child probably feels tense) Provide tasks at which the child can succeed

tion with others and do not respond to overtures from others. Others respond, but with hostility and aggression. Problems arise when interactions between the child and the social environment are inappropriate.

Children's emotional disturbances have been attributed to three causal categories:

Biologically caused disorders may be genetic, neurological, or biochemical. For the mildly disturbed child, there is seldom convincing evidence that biological factors alone are responsible for the problem. Temperament and disease may predispose, but they are not direct causes.

Family dynamics may be related to emotional difficulties, but it is not possible to find consistent evidence that points to parents as being primarily responsible for children's emotional problems.

Undesirable experiences at school can have profound effects on children and may contribute to the development of emotional problems.

Inappropriate behavior tends to elicit negative responses from peers and adults. Because consistently negative feedback increases the likelihood that the child will behave in undesirable ways, early identification and intervention are very important.

Associated Learning Problems

The emotionally disturbed child may have one or more of the following learning-related problems:

—Difficulty in getting a task done without a lot of prodding.

—Fearfulness of people or situations.

—Difficulty in building or maintaining satisfactory interpersonal relationships with peers and teachers.

—Excessive shyness or aggressiveness.

—Lack of interest in communicating with or relating to other people.

—Pervasive unhappiness or depression.

—Difficulty in adjusting to changes in routine.

The extent to which an emotionally disturbed child will be able to achieve social studies objectives will depend on the child's comfort and security in the learning environment. An environment that fosters positive interactions between the child and his or her peers and classroom teacher will contribute substantially to the child's interest and ability to achieve. Of critical importance will be the behavior-management strategies that the teacher employs when the child's behavior is disruptive or disturbing.

Strategies for Modifying Instruction

Irrespective of the intent of a lesson in social studies or any other area, a teacher with an emotionally disturbed child in the classroom must be prepared to deliver consistent yet flexible behavior-management techniques that clearly indicate the difference between acceptable and unacceptable actions. For example, a teacher may want to enforce a brief period of social isolation as a consequence of an aggresive act. That should become a consistent management technique; however, a child who is removed and placed in social isolation may need to be talked with privately and reassured, especially if the child was clearly provoked. The consequences of behavior, both acceptable and unacceptable, must be made very clear to children, especially those with emotional problems. To such children, frequently offering honest praise and encouragement during instructional periods is essential.

The achievement of goals by an emotionally disturbed child will require highly motivating lessons that encourage the child to participate. When the child wants to participate, be ready to reinforce that behavior. Efforts to participate in the group, in any way, should receive positive reinforcement.

When an emotionally disturbed child wants to talk, be prepared to be a good listener. Children with behavioral problems need many opportunities to prove to themselves that they are adequate; teachers who hold inappropriate expectations for such children will further undermine their struggles to attain self-esteem.

A child with emotional problems needs opportunities for "letting off steam" as well as a safe place for this to occur. This need may become apparent at inopportune moments, from an instructional standpoint; however, if provisions for meeting it are built into the schedule and into the curriculum, the distracting elements of such behavior can be reduced. For example, by carefully observing and recording instances of "acting out" behavior, you may become able to predict, with sufficient accuracy, which times and situations contribute to the child's need to let off steam. Perhaps the blowups tend to occur immediately after recess or lunch or during lessons that are frustrating or uninteresting. If such a pattern emerges, you can plan accordingly and provide appropriate activities for the whole class (for example, races or basketball in the gym or outside) or for the child (for example, shooting a spongelike Nerf ball into a cardboard container—a quiet but energy-releasing activity).

You may want to use physical contact—a hug or a pat on the back—as a means of reinforcing appropriate behavior. This is a delicate area for some teachers and students, but one worthy of attention. Emotionally disturbed children need many forms of reinforcement and encouragement, and physical touch can be used very effectively if the student does not withdraw from it. Obviously, physical contact should not be forced. Leave

the child alone if he or she pulls away.

Some emotionally disturbed children need help in learning to express their emotions in socially appropriate ways. They will need many opportunities to observe and read about how others express sadness, joy, and fear, for example.

Perhaps the most difficult aspect of teaching an emotionally disturbed child is the danger of providing an inadvertent reward, in terms of special attention, when the child behaves inappropriately; it is all too easy to ignore the child when behavior is appropriate and pay attention only when the child is "disturbing."

Several instructional modifications for emotionally troubled students have particular utility within certain goal areas of social studies. These are listed in Table 4.

VISUAL IMPAIRMENTS

Nature of the Condition

Visual impairment tends to evoke more awkwardness from the nondisabled than any other type of disability—perhaps because such a disability tends to be apparent, or because a sighted person is loath to imagine what life would be like without sight. All too often, a blind or partially sighted person is assumed to be helpless and dependent. This is a natural reaction, but often it reflects an incorrect perception.

There are two ways of defining *visual impairment:* one is legal, and the other is educational. The legal definition involves assessment of visual acuity and field of vision and is used to determine whether an individual qualifies for certain benefits available to the blind. This definition encompasses two categories of visually impaired people: the *blind* and the *partially sighted.* It is important to realize, however, that the vast majority of "legally blind" people have some vision.

Educators have preferred a definition that stresses the method of reading instruction: the *blind* are those who are so severely impaired that they must be taught to read by braille, while the *partially sighted* can read print with the aid of magnifying devices or books with large print.

The major causes of serious visual impairment, in addition to accidents, are glaucoma, cataracts, and diabetes. Glaucoma, the cause of which is unknown, is a condition in which there is excessive pressure in the eyeball. Cataracts are caused by clouding of the lens of the eye, and diabetes can result in blindness from a loss of blood supply to the retina. Prenatal causes include infectious diseases: for example, syphilis and rubella.

Associated Learning Problems

Visually impaired children are likely to do poorly on tasks requiring abstract thinking. They are also at a distinct disadvantage in appreciating spatial relationships; they will need to develop an appreciation of space by using senses other than vision. However, in general, the visually impaired are not greatly disadvantaged in terms of cognitive development, and they can learn to compensate in many ways.

Clearly, the successful adjustment of visually impaired youngsters has a lot to do with their skill in moving about in their environment. Because some children may be reluctant to move about on their own, much will depend on a child's ability to detect physical obstructions in the environment. This ability is not an "extra sense" but rather a learned proficiency in picking up cues from one's surroundings.

In terms of academic achievement, visually impaired children should have no difficulty keeping up with their peers if they are allowed sufficient time to complete tasks and if the stimuli needed for learning are effectively presented. Likewise, a visually impaired child should have no special difficulty in achieving social studies objectives. Indeed, the social studies, with its wide variety of teaching techniques (audio-visual aids, maps, charts, field trips, group discussions), may be the subject area that presents the least difficulty for both teacher and student.

Strategies for Modifying Instruction

The most obvious modification of instruction for a visually impaired child is to provide auditory substitutes for visual materials and activities. However, it is important to remember that many visually impaired students have some sight, and that large-print materials are useful and readily available.

Helping the child learn to attend to auditory stimuli will be facilitated by the use of tape recorders, "talking books," and sound films. As pictures are presented to the class, oral descriptions can be provided by the teacher or other students.

Providing the child with concrete objects or models to experience and feel is very important. However, since many visually impaired youngsters understandably resist participating in special activities that set them apart as "different," it is important to engage *all* the students in tactile exploration experiences.

A visually handicapped child will need assistance in developing spatial relationships. A good starting point is the child's own body. By developing an awareness of the relationship between body parts and their locations, the child will begin to develop an understanding of his or her orientation in space. Children with vision problems will

Table 4

MODIFICATION OF SOCIAL STUDIES INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES FOR AN EMOTIONALLY HANDICAPPED STUDENT

	Goal Category			
	Knowledge	Skills	Values	Social Participation
Description of Learning Goal(s)	Concepts and generalizations from the social sciences; patterns and systems in the environment; social issues	Analyzing, synthesizing, evaluating; data processing; human relations	Awareness of and appreciation for differences in people	Active involvement in the solution of social problems
Suggested Instructional Strategies	Keep tasks short Make sure material to be learned is at the child's instructional level Present material that appeals to the child's interests Help the child develop awareness of his major body parts and of spatial relationships, using own body as a reference point	Provide opportunities for concrete objects to be used in lessons Encourage tactile exploration	Provide content related to emotions, values, and interpersonal relationships (teacher must be ready to provide support to the child if his or her position is unpopular or criticized by others)	Do not require strict conformity to group behavior or tasks if child cannot handle such responsibility Remove the child from group activity when he or she cannot handle it (this must not be viewed as punishment by child or peers)

need to be taught directional words as they acquire skills in exploring their environment.

A teacher can enhance the learning environment for a visually impaired child by ensuring that the classroom is adequately and evenly lit, and that desk surfaces are free of glare and direct sunlight. The use of gray or green chalkboards, unglazed (rough or matté finish) paper, and soft pencils is also recommended.

The teacher can also facilitate the participation of the visually impaired child by using the following strategies: (1) call children by name when responding to raised hands or asking questions; (2) verbalize all material being written on the chalkboard; (3) encourage the discussion of sensory experiences associated with events or pictures; and (4) arrange the seating in such a way that the visually impaired child's face can be seen during group discussions (so that the child's desire to speak can be observed even if the child does not volunteer to do so).

A group discussion or project is ideal for engaging the participation of a visually impaired child. The child can assume a variety of roles in the group: partner to a sighted person, interviewer, observer, and reactor.

For a child who uses braille—and, in fact, for all children classified as visually impaired—the classroom teacher will need the support and guidance of a specially trained resource person. No classroom teacher can be expected to be solely responsible for the instruction of such children.

In modifying instruction, remember that a visually impaired child may have more or better-developed skills than might be expected. Assuming the child to be helpless or dependent is understandable but inappropriate. When in doubt, ask the child if he or she needs assistance and respond accordingly.

Some suggested instructional modifications for helping visually impaired students achieve social studies goals are shown in Table 5.

SPEECH AND LANGUAGE DISORDERS

Nature of the Condition

Language is the communication of ideas through symbols according to grammatical and semantic rules. Children with language disorders have difficulty communicating orally. Perhaps they cannot derive meaning from what they hear or are unable to express their ideas in words. If youngsters do not develop language at the expected time, they are said to exhibit *delayed language*.

Speech is the process of forming and sequencing the sounds of oral language. Speech is said to be *disordered* when the sequencing and forming of sounds produces ungrammatical, unintelligible, or personally unsatisfactory results.

There are three major types of disorders of speech. *Articulatory disorders* are present if listeners perceive the omission, substitution, addition, or distortion of speech sounds. *Voice disorders* are characterized by aberrations in pitch, loudness, and/or quality that are abusive to the larynx or displeasing to the speaker or listener. *Disorders of speech flow* are patterns of stuttering and gaps of silence which call negative attention to the speaker and interfere with the speaker's ability to be understood.

Speech and language disorders can be *organic*—that is, caused by a neurological or structural (for example, brain injury) abnormality. Those that are not organic in origin are considered *functional*. Some functional disorders are caused by known psychological or environmental factors; however, for the majority of functional disorders the causes are unknown.

Associated Learning Problems

Delayed speech and language are particularly common among the severely retarded or disturbed because of the interdependency of cognitive, language, and social/emotional development. Children with severe academic learning problems are likely to have speech and language disorders as well. However, the focus of this section is on the child who does *not* have a serious handicap in addition to defective speech and language and who is likely to receive all or almost all academic instruction in a regular classroom.

The child's attitude toward his or her own deficiency is a very important variable when considering the child's learning capabilities. Persons with speech defects sometimes pay a heavy price in terms of rejection or overprotection, and the results can be anxiety, guilt, and hostility. However, in other cases the psychological damage may be very slight.

It is imperative that children with speech and language disorders be identified as early as possible so that appropriate treatment and/or remediation procedures can be implemented. The classroom teacher plays a critical role in the identification process because he or she observes the child on a daily basis in a natural setting in which the child's adequacy in communicating can best be determined. If you suspect that a problem exists, seek the help of a suitable specialist—usually a speech clinician. After observing and assessing the adequacy of the child's hearing, articulation, voice, speech, and language the specialist can work with you to find ways of helping the child on an individual basis.

The following symptoms may indicate a speech or language disorder and should alert you to seek further evaluation.

Table 5

MODIFICATION OF SOCIAL STUDIES INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES FOR A VISUALLY IMPAIRED STUDENT

	Goal Category			
	Knowledge	Skills	Values	Social Participation
Description of Learning Goal(s)	Concepts and generalizations from the social sciences; patterns and systems in the environment; social issues	Analyzing, synthesizing, evaluating; data processing; human relations	Awareness of and appreciation for differences in people	Active involvement in the solution of social problems
Suggested Instructional Strategies	Help the child acquire knowledge of immediate environment as a precursor to understanding spatial relationships Use "talking books" and films as part of library research Encourage use of the telephone as a means of gathering information Maximize opportunities for interviewing as a data-gathering technique	Keep charts and graphs simple Help the child organize his or her examination of charts and graphs Provide practice in using keys on maps Use tactile charts and maps whenever possible (but with only the significant elements tactile) Use special equipment as needed Use teaching aids produced by American Printing House for the Blind, Perkins School for the Blind, and American Foundation for the Blind	Orient the child in advance for field trips Use class discussion frequently (make sure that all students identify themselves by name before speaking)	Provide opportunities for all students to work with the child in pairs and small groups

—The child is silent much of the time.

—The child points or gestures instead of making verbal requests.

—The child seems generally slow to learn.

—The child is tense during speech, clenching fists or making facial contortions.

—The child displays speech production irregularities; for example, stuttering, mumbling, excessive repetition, distortions (omitting sounds from words).

Most children with speech and language disorders should be able to achieve social studies objectives as well as their nonhandicapped peers. Much will depend on their self-confidence and the extent to which they are accepted by their peers.

The manner in which the classroom teacher relates to the child is very important. It is important to make it enjoyable for the child to talk, as well as act as a very receptive audience. Although it may be difficult to ignore speech irregularities, try to concentrate on and respond appropriately to the affective and cognitive content of the child's speech.

Strategies for Modifying Instruction

Instructional modifications appropriate for a child with a speech or language disorder apply not only to the social studies but equally to all facets of the elementary program. The teacher will need to provide extra time for oral responses to a child who is dysfluent or a stutterer. The child will need ample opportunity to listen to correct speech which is appropriate to the child's language level and interests. Children with speech disorders also need encouragement to listen to themselves in order to recognize their own articulation, voice, and speechflow characteristics. (The speech clinician will be able to provide suggestions about taping the child's voice.) It is important to anticipate impatience and/or unaccepting attitudes on the part of peers when a child with a speech disorder is speaking or reading aloud, and be ready to modify the situation accordingly.

Table 6 identifies specific instructional modifications designed to help children with speech and language impairments achieve social studies goals.

PHYSICAL DISABILITIES

Nature of the Condition

Children who are impaired in kinetic or motor functions are described as physically disabled. One of the most common causes of physical disabilities is damage to or deterioration of the central nervous system—the brain, the spinal cord, and surrounding areas.

The most prevalent physical disability is cerebral palsy (CP), which results from brain damage before, during, or shortly after birth. Some children with CP may also have hearing problems, visual impairments, perceptual disorders, and speech defects, and some are also mentally retarded; however, it is unlikely that a physically impaired child who is also mentally retarded will be mainstreamed.

Spina bifida is the second most common birth defect; it is a congenital defect of the spine and nervous system which causes paralysis of muscles. Most children affected with spina bifida need braces and crutches or are confined to a wheelchair, and many have learning problems as well.

Other physical impairments include missing limbs, osteomyelitis (an infection of the bone), "club foot," and scoliosis (curvature of the spine). Traumas, accidents, genetic defects, and infectious diseases can all cause impairment.

Associated Learning Problems

The severity and cosmetic appearance of the handicap affect the responses of others to a disabled person. If those responses are overwhelmingly negative, physically disabled children may isolate themselves socially and emotionally. Depending on the type of physical disability and the extent to which other learning or communication impairments are present, the following learning-related problems might be expected in a physically disabled child who is mainstreamed:

—Poor gross and/or fine motor coordination.

—Early onset of fatigue.

—Poor eye-hand coordination.

—Body tenseness and tendency to startle easily.

—Difficulty in mastering self-help skills.

—Jerky or shaky motions and uneven body movements.

The extent to which social studies can be achieved by physically disabled youngsters depends largely on the extent to which other problems—for example, hearing or speech difficulties—are present. If the problem is solely one of mobility or coordination and the child is functioning adequately in other respects, there is no need for revised expectations on the part of the teacher. If communication impairments are present, achievement of learning objectives will depend on the teacher's ability to present information in ways that permit the child to receive and understand the information and on the child's ability to use alternative modes of expression.

Since each child's problems and abilities are different, it is difficult to make a definitive statement about physical impairments. Almost without exception, classroom teachers will need assistance from resource person-

Table 6

MODIFICATION OF SOCIAL STUDIES INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES FOR A STUDENT WITH SPEECH OR LANGUAGE DISORDER

	Goal Category			
	Knowledge	Skills	Values	Social Participation
Description of Learning Goal(s)	Concepts and generalizations from the social sciences; patterns and systems in the environment; social issues	Analyzing, synthesizing, evaluating; data processing; human relations	Awareness of and appreciation for differences in people	Active involvement in the solution of social problems
Suggested Instructional Strategies	Encourage written responses if child prefers them Do not force the child to talk Place child near source of information (speaker, tape recorder)	Provide a variety of ways for child to demonstrate skill acquisition in addition to oral responding Encourage gestures and pointing if appropriate to the situation	Encourage other students to accept and value persons with oral communication deficiencies	Provide roles for child that will facilitate active participation but minimize embarrassment (taking notes, preparing posters)

nel in determining the extent to which modifications in classroom environment and instructional strategies will be needed.

Strategies for Modifying Instruction

The presence of almost any kind of physical handicap may result in fatigue; thus, most disabled children will require additional time in order to complete certain kinds of activities. However, if the additional time required would disrupt the schedule for the whole class, it is better to shorten or otherwise modify the activity so that all members of the class can participate together.

Children whose physical handicaps have severely restricted their mobility may not have experienced the same preparatory events that nonimpaired children typically experience—for example, going to the grocery store alone or riding a bus. Thus, they may be deficient in their understanding of certain concepts or in mastery of particular skills. Students with fine-motor-coordination problems may have difficulty using standard writing implements; such children may need special equipment or alternative methods for expressing themselves.

The self-esteem of a physically disabled child may be low. Providing ample opportunities to achieve success will enhance self-esteem, as will encouraging the child to do things independently whenever possible.

For a child who is tense, it is important to avoid abrupt changes in routines and lessons and to minimize distractions.

In addition to these general suggestions, several instructional modifications have particular utility for social studies goal areas. These are listed in Table 7.

Table 7

MODIFICATION OF SOCIAL STUDIES INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES FOR A PHYSICALLY DISABLED STUDENT

	Goal Category			
	Knowledge	Skills	Values	Social Participation
Description of Learning Goal(s)	Concepts and generalizations from the social sciences; patterns and systems in the environment; social issues	Analyzing, synthesizing, evaluating; data processing; human relations	Awareness of and appreciation for differences in people	Active involvement in the solution of social problems
Suggested Instructional Strategies		Provide opportunities to practice eye-hand coordination Provide activities that promote perceptual development (matching games, discrimination tasks) Shorten lessons if necessary to avert fatigue	Provide ample opportunities for the child to share feelings and ideas Provide opportunities for the child to be touched	Build in roles that the child can implement Anticipate architectural barriers on field trips, etc.
	Carefully explore the range of the child's abilities; do not limit evaluation to standardized procedures Use special equipment when needed Make sure that all equipment and materials are accessible to the child			
	Design projects with the child's abilities and limitations in mind (some physically disabled students might have difficulty constructing or drawing, but they could prepare taped or typed materials).			

2. MY PLACE IN SPACE: PAINTING MAPS ON CLASSROOM FLOORS

by Loretta A. Dunne and Olive Knudsen

The study of maps can help us better understand how space is organized. Certain geographic concepts can best be taught by involving the whole child in a physical sense. When the child becomes a part of a map, he/she can more readily grasp relationships. The authors teach emotionally handicapped students in the Enterprise Elementary School District, Redding, California.

The understanding of space and how we relate to it is a very important lesson. Maps, and the study of them, can help us better understand how space is organized. Young students are mainly aware of personal space—just that space they can see or have personal contact with. As students get older they become aware of the ever-expanding space around them. Students "do this partly through movement and travel and memory, but also through representative systems, most often the map." (Bartz, 1970:18). Students must learn these concepts in stages, one after the other, until they master the skills. The developmental stages recognized by Piaget are achieved best when the student is actively involved in his learning process. (Furth, 1970). The spatial relationship of things to their horizontal space is one of the basic concepts a student must master in order to understand maps. The older the student is and the more experience the student has in this area, the broader his or her understanding of space becomes. This understanding of space as it is must start first with the student.

To enhance the teaching of certain geography concepts to handicapped as well as nonhandicapped students, methods are needed which involve the whole child in a physical sense. The student, actually in a place, has a better understanding of how that place relates to other places and to that student as a being. The classroom activity detailed here presents a method to help teach students with or without special problems to relate to the space around them and to space at a distance.

This particular classroom project assists the student to relate to her/his surroundings, in a physical as well as a conceptual sense. Consequently, she/he better understands the concept of being in more than one place at a time—in a town, in a county, in a state, and in a country all at the same time. The student thus has a better understanding of the individual's place in the classroom, in the school, in the neighborhood, and in the community.

Furthermore, the project involves all children in the classroom. First they draw a large map on the floor of the classroom, or on a large piece of plastic, if the floor is carpeted. Incidentally, the attitude of the administration and custodian toward putting a map on the classroom floor and the ability of the students to physically control the equipment necessary to paint the map on the floor, may be limiting factors of this project.

The learning derived from this project is gleaned not only from the activities with the map, but also from the physical work performed in putting the map on the floor. Specifically, the skills students learn from this project would be: map vocabulary, grid construction, relative locations, globe and map reading, and concepts of U.S. geography on a horizontal plane.

INSTRUCTIONS

Before painting a map on the floor, the children can become aware of the area they are to paint by the use of field trips, books, regular maps, transparencies, games, movies, or any other method available to the teacher. When the children are interested and have learned something about the area to be put on the floor, they are ready to start their floor map.

Step One

The children should be given grid paper and a small picture to enlarge. They may choose their own pictures or the teacher might have the pictures ready for them to use. (Young children should have simple line drawings such as those found in coloring books for beginners.) The children first count the squares on their grid paper and put a grid with an equal number of squares over the picture they have chosen. They then number and letter the coordinates on both the picture and the large grid. Now they

are ready to enlarge their picture. Be sure to caution the children to check their co-ordinates often, being sure to get them in the correct square. This is *very* important for a successful project.

Step Two

After the children have mastered the above task, they are given a small map to grid. The map may be dittoed, commercial, or teacher made. In order to grid the map they must count the tiles on the floor area they are to use so that they can decide how many squares they will need. When the children have decided on the amount of squares, they should draw a corresponding grid on their map and number and letter the lines to form the co-ordinates.

Step Three

The class divides into small work groups of two or three.

Step Four

The children sweep the floor area to be used for the map.

Step Five

Using the small grid map as a guide, the children put the co-ordinates on the floor, using the lines made by the tiles of the grid. On a rolled linoleum floor or a large piece of plastic surface, they measure and draw the grid. The students first write the numbers and letters of the co-ordinates with pencil and, after checking to see they are correct, paint over them with tempera paint.

Step Six

Again using the small grid map as a guide, the children draw the lines on the floor that match the co-ordinates on the small map. After checking the lines to see that they are correct, the students paint them with tempera paint.

Step Seven

When the outlines of the map are complete, the students draw and paint other features on the map, such as rivers, mountains, towns, roads, or any features that are of interest to them. If the United States has been painted on the floor, the names of the states can be painted in, or, if the counties of a state have already been done, the names of the counties can be painted in.

When the children have completed all the lessons using the map, they remove the paint with sponges and water. A child using a wet sponge will usually do an adequate job. The custodian's scrubbing machine will take off the remainder of the paint. (Beware of using magenta, yellow, orange, or yellow green, as they sometimes stain.)

The children become very interested and involved when the map begins to take form. As it progresses, one group draws while another group paints. With a large class it is better to break the class into small groups, as the children tend to get into each other's way when too many are on the floor. One group might work in table activities with maps while other groups work on the floor. Part of the class might be engaged in a completely different activity while some groups work on the floor map. These children might then switch activities halfway through the period.

The teacher can provide many activities with the completed map in mind. The children can locate places where someone special lives, such as grandparents, aunts, or uncles. They could put their desks in a special place. They may learn east, west, north, and south by playing games on the map. They can stand in the southern half of the map and walk to the north. The children might learn how weather differs in the mapped area by placing weather symbols they have made on the appropriate locations. The animals and plants of the different areas of the map can be learned by the same method.

Drawing, painting, and transferring a small map to a larger floor map through the use of grids and co-ordinates are useful skills and can be used with other subjects if the imaginations are just let free. Given a chance, children often come up with some very good, imaginative ideas for the use of the map.

MATERIALS FOR PAINTING THE MAP

Materials needed to do exercises prior to putting the map on the floor:

1. Grid paper (¼" square works well)
2. Tracing paper
3. Pictures or maps to enlarge
4. Rulers
5. Pencils
6. Erasers
7. Coloring books or other sources for simple line drawings

(If the pictures or map to be used are in a textbook, students can trace them and then draw the grid on them.)

Materials needed for painting map on floor:

1. Tiled floor in classroom. (If floor is carpeted, a large piece of polyethylene plastic sheeting can be taped to the floor and grid lines drawn upon it with cray-pas, or other oil base crayon, and the lines painted with acrylic paint instead of tempera.)

2. Small dittoed or commercial map (about 8½" x 11")
3. Soft lead pencils (#1 or #2)
4. Erasers (Pink pearl or equivalent)
5. Paint brushes (#7 or #8)
6. Tempera paint (powdered, in your choice of color, but beware of magenta, orange, yellow, or yellow-green as these colors sometimes stain)
7. Small containers for mixing paint
8. Liquid soap or detergent
9. Broom or dust mop (usually available from the school custodian)

(Note: To make the tempera stick to the waxed floor, add a little liquid soap to the tempera before adding the water. A tablespoon to about a cup of mixed paint is usually sufficient. The liquid soap, a wetting agent, allows the tempera to mix more quickly with water.)

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3. TEACHING STRATEGIES FOR MIDDLE-LEVEL HANDICAPPED STUDENTS

by Loretta E. Barnard

Classroom methods must suit the needs of each student, not force the student to fit into a set pattern of learning. Handicapped students can best be helped by teachers who understand these students' special needs and who demonstrate by their careful planning that they are concerned. The author is a Sixth Grade social studies teacher at P.M.S., U.S.D. #368, Paola, Kansas.

Many problems in education exist because students do not learn at the same rate. They all have their own patterns of mental, emotional, and physical development which are affected by many environmental factors. The most effective teachers understand individual differences of students and recognize their weaknesses and strengths. In other words, an effective plan of education fits the needs of each student, instead of forcing the student to fit into a set pattern of learning. This is especially true for handicapped students.

Problems of students who are physically, mentally, and emotionally handicapped have received greatly increased attention at both the federal and state level during the last few decades. Federal and state legislation provides funds for special teachers, equipment, and services. Most states require that all teachers take at least one course which will better equip them to meet the needs of exceptional students.

The purpose of this chapter is to present practical suggestions to teachers of handicapped students so that such students may realize their fullest capabilities in school, at home, and in their communities. The author uses the term "handicapped students" to describe those who deviate physically, socially, or mentally from the mainstream to such a degree that they require special instructions or consideration, either temporarily or permanently.

At the present time, schools tend to place handicapped students in the least restrictive environment, that is, "mainstreaming" for all or part of their school day whenever possible. A regular classroom teacher, therefore, must have increased knowledge of their needs and of methods to be used to meet these needs. Some guiding principles that may aid teachers in planning a sound educational program for handicapped students are discussed in the following paragraphs:

1. To identify the handicapped students in the classroom, teachers may consult previous teachers, principal, counselor, and the cumulative and health records of the students. Teachers should also watch for, and write down for future reference, any special behavior on the part of these students (rubbing eyes, out-of-seat behavior, unusual quietness, etc.)
2. If the teacher feels there is a need for additional testing or evaluation, he/she should consult the principal or school counselor.
3. When planning an educational program, teachers should remember that opportunities for sharing, participating, and contributing as a working member of the class are excellent for the morale of both the handicapped and nonhandicapped students. Futhermore, teachers should emphasize concern and respect for one another as they develop individual and group activities. Such attitudes are basic to living in our democratic society.
4. Encouragement to handicapped students can be given by being friendly, understanding, and patient, and by giving praise for work well done. Teachers should avoid giving unearned praise, however. Real progress and achievement lead to a feeling of satisfaction and of belonging and improve the "self-image" of students.
5. Teachers may develop feelings of security on the part of the handicapped students by accepting them in a realistic, matter-of-fact manner. This will also promote acceptance by the other students.
6. Handicapped students, as well as nonhandicapped students, need competence in the areas of healthful living, safety, family living, personal and social adjustment, human relations, conservation, consumer problems, civic responsibilities, and use of leisure time. Social studies offer many and varied opportunities for teaching these skills.
7. To help insure maximum growth and learning for each student, teachers must start at the level of each student, select appropriate and interesting materials that can be handled successfully, and use the proper

procedures. Every effort should be made to discover and utilize any special talents possessed by handicapped students. Opportunities should be provided to help these students use their talents to function as contributing members of the group.

8. Since evaluation is an integral part of the learning process, teacher, students, and parents should assume a major role in the development of a satisfactory method of reporting.

9. Once teachers have planned an educational program and made the necessary classroom arrangements they should accept handicapped students as regular members of the group. Any necessary adjustment should be made quietly and subtly so as not to be embarrassing to them.

The following sections will describe very briefly some of the strategies which have been used successfully by the author with middle-level students in social studies classes. Ideas for these strategies have been gleaned from many sources, too many, in fact, to identify all sources. Some were suggested for other content areas and have been adapted for use in social studies classes. Others have been developed to fit the specific needs of some student or group of students.

Improvement of the Students' Self-image. "Mainstreaming" seems to help improve the self-concept of some handicapped students. They learn from nonhandicapped students and benefit from participating in classroom activities. They do not seem to feel as "different" as they might in special classes.

Allowing the students to work in small groups or with individual students also appears to be beneficial.

Having people from the community who have special training or who have similar handicaps visit with or assist handicapped students, may help the students feel better about themselves.

"Success stories," which are made available through the library, can do much to help students realize that their handicaps need not prevent them from being "worthwhile" persons. Knowing that their teacher cares about them will probably help improve the students' self-image as much as any other one thing.

Helpful Services for Teachers. Teachers of handicapped students should not feel they are alone with no place to go for help or advice. In fact, teachers are encouraged to take advantage of all the services available when planning educational programs for their students.

Teachers may contact their own state Department of Education for a list of materials available for handicapped students. These often include large type books (library or text), non-glossy writing paper, cassette tapes, books and articles from the newspapers and magazines, records of various types, and other educational materials that can be used by the classroom teacher.

Teachers in many districts have access to Instructional Media Centers. These centers have samples of many types of materials. The staff members of these centers are expert at demonstrating the materials and in advising teachers about materials that will help handicapped students. Materials may be borrowed and used by teachers and students at no cost.

The following "special" personnel are available in many school districts for consultation, planning and diagnostic teaching:

1. Superintendent
2. Principal
3. Counselor
4. School nurse
5. Hearing specialist
6. School psychologist
7. Speech therapist
8. Learning disability teacher
9. E.M.R. teacher
10. Gifted teacher
11. Resource teacher

Cooperation between teachers of academic classes and the related arts classes should be encouraged. For example, the physical education teacher might help with exercises which improve coordination.

School supply catalogs and professional magazines can help keep teachers of handicapped students informed of materials that can be secured.

Practical Suggestions for Helping Handicapped Students. Recording the social studies textbook on cassette tapes will prove beneficial to students:

1. with reading problems
2. with visual problems
3. with a hearing impairment
4. who learn better by auditory methods
5. who are easily distracted by normal classroom activity
6. who want to be a member of a group

Suggestions:

1. Choose a quiet place to do the recording.
2. Use good quality tapes. Since most schools use a textbook for a number of years, the tapes receive hard use.
3. Divide each chapter into sections that are of suitable length for handicapped students.
4. When recording the book, use your normal voice. Read a little slower than normal. Enunciate all words clearly.

5. After finishing the story portion, go back and read information under pictures, maps, etc.
6. Students with coordination problems should use a cassette player to avoid accidental erasing of tape.
7. Store tapes in a cool, dry place.

Placing masking tape on the pencil of a cerebral palsied student will help keep the pencil under control. In severe cases, a plastic splint may be helpful.

Students who have difficulty writing may be able to do very well on tests if they are allowed to record their responses on a tape recorder. This may be done in a quiet corner of the room. If that is not convenient, most librarians are willing to supervise such activities in the library.

Students with reading or visual problems may be able to do better if the teacher reads the test to them over the tape recorder. Head phones make it possible for several students to use the same tape. Individual study carrells reduce the temptation to copy.

In some instances, teachers may want to allow students to use notes while taking tests.

Specific lessons that are to be used by several students or that need to be used several times may be laminated (hot or cold) or covered wth clear contact paper. "Wipe off crayons", "Plastic marks," or regular crayons (harder to erase) may be used to mark on the laminated surface. The surface may be cleaned by rubbing with a dry facial tissue. If teachers do not have access to materials for laminating, plastic envelopes may be used. Answers should be supplied if self-checking is desired. An example is given below.

An outline map of the world may be taped to both sides of a piece of oak tag. On one side write in the names of the continents, oceans, major seas, etc. Leave the other side blank. Laminate both sides or slip into a plastic envelope. Students may write the names of the continents, oceans, etc. on the blank side. Then turn the map over to check location and spelling. Clean with a dry facial tissue and it is ready to use again.

This process is also very useful if teachers want to preserve pictures, articles from newspapers, etc. for use in the future.

Commercial and "teacher made" games can help teachers of handicapped students avoid unnecessary routine drill. Games provide practice and enthusiasm and help create a positive attitude toward school. All parts of the games can be laminated for permanence. Markers should be large enough to be handed easily by handicapped students.

Teachers of handicapped students should not overlook the possibilities provided by the use of "learning" or "interest" centers, which can provide many opportunities to promote independence in decision-making and self-direction. Ideas are available from many sources.

Some kinds of learning can best be accomplished on field trips where students are allowed to observe, participate, and question. For example, a trip to a museum provides an opportunity to study a foreign culture through its art, customs, costumes, etc.

Handicapped students are often aided in learning by the use of concrete objects. Teachers might want to consider bringing samples of products, specimens, collections, and exhibits into the classroom. Or better yet, students may be encouraged to prepare these to share with their classmates.

Using Globes and Maps. Globes are the most reliable and accessible tool found in the social studies classroom. Teachers of the handicapped will find them useful when discussing a country or a continent in order to bring out its relationship to other places and to clarify ideas regarding size, distance, direction, and shape. Globes are very useful in setting up interest centers. An example follows:

Learning Center-Globe—one or two persons
(Check your answers by looking on the back)
1. The 2 continents that are entirely in the western hemisphere are _____ and _____ .
2. The 4 continents that are almost all in the eastern hemisphere are _____ , _____ , _____ , and _____ .
3. The continent that is in both the western and eastern hemisphere is _____, which is near the South Pole.
4. The largest ocean is the _____ .
5. The largest continent is _____ .
6. The smallest continent is _____ .
7. The continent on which we live is _____ .
8. If you go east from South America, you would find the continent of _____ .

Raised graphic-relief maps provide handicapped students the opportunity to see and feel mountains, valleys, plateaus, etc. Students can also trace a river from its source to its mouth. Some maps may be placed on the floor so that water can be poured on in the highlands, allowing students to see the way rivers are formed. These are also useful for locating highland and lowland areas, examples of various land and water forms, etc.

Maps may be mounted on pieces of oaktag and cut into jigsaw puzzles to help handicapped students learn about their world.

Although commercial maps of many types are available for use in the social studies classroom, handicapped students often find those made by themselves or their classmates more helpful.

If drawing the map presents a problem, the teacher may choose to use a transparency on an overhead projec-

tor to enlarge maps on large sheets of paper. These can be moved about if mounted on large sheets of cardboard.

Political maps may be made by gluing different colors of cereals on the map to represent the different countries. Students may then make signs for the capital cities and countries. Colored pins may be placed on the map to show places being studied.

Simple graphic relief maps may be made by using a transparency to draw the outline of the country or continent and the regions where mountains, highlands, and lowlands are located. Students may then glue brown beans on for mountains, milo for highands, and split peas for lowlands. The students can then label each region with its appropriate name.

A flour and salt clay (1 cup flour, ½ cup salt, 3 teaspoons alum, and enough water to moisten) may be used by teachers and students to illustrate many geographical concepts.

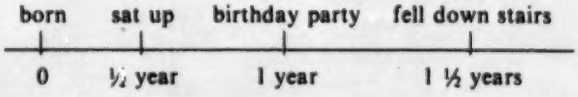
To help students learn and understand the many geographical terms used in social studies classes, teachers can use illustrations along with written definitions. A teacher might draw a picture of Florida to show that it is a large arm of land reaching into the water.

Definitions also may be recorded by the teacher on a cassette tape so that students may use them without assistance.

Students may be given clay (modeling, flour and salt, cornstarch and salt, etc.) to make their own examples.

Using Charts. Charts are not only attractive but can also be used as an additional means of teaching basic social studies concepts. The one shown below when enlarged could be used as an aid in teaching latitudes. A transparency may be used to make it large enough for classroom use.

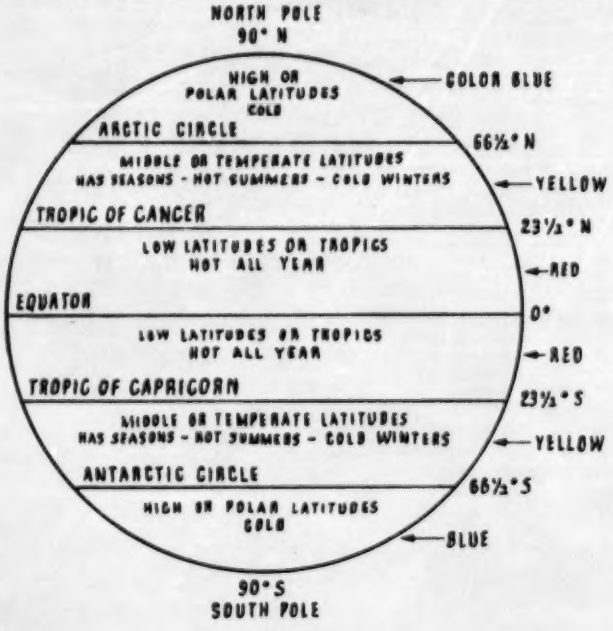
Handicapped students may develop a sense of passing time by making a time line showing the major events in their lives. Photographs or hand drawn pictures may be added. These time lines are more effective if done on a large sheet of paper. An example follows:



Foreign visitors to the community or persons from the community who have visited foreign countries always add to the educational program of handicapped students. Their firsthand accounts of what they have seen and experienced make it easy for students to learn. Teachers may preserve some of the ideas presented by these visitors by taking colored photographs or slides of objects brought to be displayed, tape recording the visitor's presentation, or better yet, having the presentation videotaped.

CONCLUSION

Social studies teachers show understanding and concern for handicapped students by creating an enthusiastic love for social studies. This feeling is contagious. It helps convince students and parents alike that social studies is interesting and worthwhile.



4. MODIFYING STUDY GUIDES, PRACTICE AND TESTS FOR STUDENTS WITH LEARNING DIFFICULTIES AT THE SECONDARY LEVEL

by Anne Rogers Schlick, Margaret Gall, and R. Hunt Riegel

The handicapped student at the secondary school level must be taught by modifying the regular curriculum. The teacher may be aided by examples in adapting materials, developing study guides, practice worksheets, and tests to suit the needs of students with a variety of learning skills. While the procedures described may require much time for the teacher in the beginning, practice will make the process easier and more meaningful for both teacher and student. The authors are with the Model Resource Room Project at the Plymouth-Canton Community Schools in Michigan.

INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

General education teachers at the secondary level often see a sizable proportion of their classes (up to 30% or more) who do not have the basic academic skills necessary to effectively respond to the instructional materials in use. These teachers, having been trained to organize and present information about their subject matter, often feel at a loss as to how to respond to these students. This is particularly true for the handicapped adolescent who may have begun to develop the attitude that the struggle to learn is humiliating. This student especially needs to learn what is essential through individualized motivating and supportive instruction (Lenkowsky, 1977). It is not a lack of intellectual ability which handicaps the learning disabled older student, but the lack of regular curriculum modification (DeWitt, 1977). This paper presents an example of a hierarchy of tasks which may be used in adapting materials to suit the needs of students with a variety of learning skills. In addition we shall present recommendations and examples of alternatives for developing study guides, practice worksheets, and tests for use in subject matter courses at the secondary level.

Individualization

It has often been noted that secondary students, as other students, need individualized instruction in order to better develop the skills they need to suceed. Individualization as used here does not mean teaching each student separately, or even preparing separate assignments for each student. Rather, the term refers to the planning of instruction around the individual needs of students. Such planning can usually be accomplished by grouping students for instruction according to their current skills in the task to be assigned (DeWitt, 1977). Often, for example, providing one or two alternatives for a given assignment will adequately accommodate the variety of skills levels reflected in a class.

Most subjects taught in the schools consist of two components. The first component is the basic "script" of facts and ideas which must be acquired. The second component consists of information about the content which is derived from discussions and critical thinking. The acquisition of factual information lends itself more readily to individualized activities. Practice with basic facts can be arranged at several levels simultaneously, and skill-based groupings may be organized within the class. Once the basic facts have been learned, the student should have opportunities to discuss and apply the ideas learned. It should be remembered, however, that the facts must be learned first. To this end, a variety of practice activities is helpful.

The point we wish to emphasize is that individualization does *not* necessarily mean individual tutoring. If skill-based groupings are made within the class for the purpose of providing a variety of levels of practice (as we shall discuss below), the teacher will have gone a long way toward providing for the individual needs of the students. Certainly it is easier to individualize for students who read well and who are good at following directions, but it is

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also possible (as we hope to demonstrate) to provide similar activities under more difficult circumstances, for students who have not acquired these assets.

Modifying for Special Needs

Because our focus is on helping the handicapped student succeed in the "Mainstream" of general education, the skills emphasized below have been selected as being within the capabilities of the majority of mildly and moderately impaired students. Since such students often receive supportive instruction from special education teachers as well, or are returning to the mainstream from special classes, it is essential that teachers coordinate their efforts. To generalize skills taught by the special education teacher into the group instructional setting of the regular class, the two teachers must engage in cooperative lesson planning (Alley, 1977). Such cooperative planning also points to skills which the special education teacher might emphasize in preparing the student for the mainstream.

Preparing effective programs for students on an individualized basis is often perceived as an awe-inspiring challenge. While good teaching techniques must always be emphasized (e.g., correction of errors; reinforcement; appropriate pacing), it may well be that more effective use of materials for all students (surely a mutually held goal) can bridge the gap between "regular" and "special" education (Ashcroft, 1977). Although commercial publishers are trying to develop materials which may better suit the needs of students with learning difficulties, teachers will always have to modify materials to some degree, in order to accommodate specific needs and interests. Among the ways to modify materials which are under the teacher's control are:

1. Selecting the topic and interest level
2. Varying the amount of material presented
3. Varying the difficulty of the material
4. Determining the sequence of presentation
5. Varying the mode of presentation
6. Altering the required mode of response
7. Developing supplementary learning aids and practice materials (Adapted from Goodman, 1978).

Sequencing Practice

In order for learning at the secondary level to be most effective, understanding should be ensured. Understanding is increased when the teacher moves the student sequentially through introductory, practice and mastery tasks. Based on information presented at the University of Pittsburgh Child Service and Demonstration Center, and on a sequence of teaching strategies developed therein (Laurie, 1977), the materials described below are intended to provide structured practice for students in a given unit of study. The practice activities are sequenced according to a hierarchy of recall skills to enable the student to progress through successively more complicated stages in reviewing subject matter materials. The four basic levels of recall reflected include:

1. Copying (short-term memory and transfer of information)
2. Recognition (reviewing, sorting and selecting material in different contexts)
3. Recall with cues (decreasing amount of prompting)
4. Total recall (with minimal prompts).

It should be emphasized that these levels reflect increasingly independent recall of basic facts, ideas and terms. As such, they assist students in moving sequentially toward mastery of factual information. Additional activities, outside the purvey of this paper, must be provided by the teacher to encourage critical thinking and comprehension. Such activities as discussion, simulation, field trips and the like are examples of elaborative and thought-provoking applications of the facts acquired.

A great deal of attention has been given to the development of advance organizers in learning (c.f., Ausubel, 1963; Gagne, 1965). Indeed, research has consistently shown that providing a set for what is to be learned has beneficial effects on what is remembered. To prepare students for new information, teachers must decide which elements of their subject matter are the most important. By identifying overall objectives, teachers can select the important passages from the text they want students to cover. A study guide to accompany a chapter or unit can direct students as they search for information (Osburn, 1978).

The following is an example of a study guide which identifies topic areas to be studied. In this guide the teacher has identified the main ideas to be learned and provided a worksheet for students to complete as they encounter the answers either in class presentation or in the textbook. For the majority of students this provides a sufficient guide for their preparation of the essential material.

Example 1. Original Study Guide
Chapter Two Study Sheet

1. What does "civilized" mean?
2. What were the centers of civilization?
3. What did they trade?
4. Why did trade become difficult?

5. Why didn't people sail on the Atlantic ocean?
6. What are some problems of navigation?
7. How did they make better ships?
8. What are some instruments used for navigation?
9. How did they make better maps?
10. Know the following: trade routes, Cathay, Ottoman Empire Prince Henry, navigation, astrolabe, caravel

Developing this kind of study guide has several distinct advantages; it is relatively brief and may be developed in a short period of time, thereby conserving both material and temporal resources for the teacher. In addition, such a guide can often serve as a management system; when students are focussed on a relatively lengthy task such as completing this sheet, the teacher then has the opportunity to move about within the class to help individual students, to form small discussion groups, and to answer questions. The management of a lengthy assignment avoids the distressing brouhaha associated with assignments which are brief and require frequent changes.

Unfortunately, this assignment also has disadvantages. Analysis of the skills necessary to complete the study sheet reveals that unless the lesson is carefully guided by the teacher, students must be able to:

1. Read the text
2. Identify main ideas
3. Note specific details
4. Use the index
5. Relate new ideas readily
6. Draw conclusions from sometimes sparse information
7. Work independently

For those students who have these skills, this study sheet may be an excellent study tool. For those who do not, however, adjustments which must be made on an individual basis usually become apparent during class time, and frustrations develop both for students and for the teacher. The purpose of revising the study guide is to provide specific directions for students operating at a variety of levels. Key vocabulary terms are identified, defined, and pages for further elaboration are cited. In addition, key ideas to know are highlighted. This guide, used in conjunction with in-class activities, helps the student sort out the information needed, aids in other staff efforts with handicapped students, helps the teacher present material in a more organized manner, and makes test-writing easy.

The teacher may, of course, delete some of the information in a study guide for those students who have the skills to find it on their own. Starting with explicit directions, however, assures that students will begin the chapter study with the same basic "script."

Practice Worksheets

Once a student has been introduced to the material to be learned, the task of learning and retaining the essential information begins. It is recommended that the teacher identify the level of mastery desired, and prepare or select materials leading to that particular level. Learning material to the level of total recall requires more time and practice than learning to a level of recognition. While we may cite specific areas in which students should learn factual information so that they may recall it automatically (as with basic math facts or names of months), we might also cite areas in which our purpose is to *acquaint* students with a body of information to help them *sort out* such information and remember relationships rather than specific facts. In the latter case, providing activities designed to promote total recall is both unnecessary and time-consuming. For the student who has difficulty learning, it is also counterproductive in that it leads to frustration and failure. Practice activities should be provided only to the level of recall the classroom teacher will test.

Four basic levels of recall have been identified for purposes of illustration. Because these levels reflect increasingly more complex learning skills, it is strongly recommended that teachers proceed through them sequentially In this manner the teacher can better ensure that students will learn the appropriate material.

Although students have skills at all four recall levels, sequential presentation and practice is the most efficient; though a student may progress through all four levels in a single week (or less, at times) the *sequencing* of skills is helpful. It should also be noted that not all students will progress through all four levels, nor do teachers necessarily require that all do. The differences in the kinds of tasks incorporated in each level permit students to perform at the level(s) most suited to their own skills, and provide the teacher with a greater capacity for individualizing within a class. This can be done while still having all students learning the same basic content.

Level 1: Copying

This level of responding is used primarily when a student is just being introduced to new material. It provides an opportunity for the student to become familiar with the terms and ideas to be learned, in a way which does not call for overtaxing or frustrating responses. As the student searches for answers and writes (or says)

them, two basic learning activities are taking place: the material is being actively processed at a level readily within the student's grasp, and it is being rehearsed (reviewed) for the first time. Copying activities should also provide an opportunity for the student to see the same material presented (or reviewed) in a slightly different way, rather than as a direct reproduction of the initial presentation. This slight difference helps students develop the notion of generalizability, and hence may ultimately facilitate transfer. In order to *slightly* vary the activity during copying, such techniques as altering the order of items, changing a few words (but retaining the meaning), and copying in different formats (e.g., fill in blanks; on overhead transparencies; in crossword puzzles) may be useful for the student.

Level 2: Recognition

This level of responding requires that the student have stored some information about the material already. The task of recognizing involves (1) matching the information given to prior experience with that information (memory) and (2) sorting the current information into previously learned relationships (identifying, selecting, matching). While level 1 (copying) may require a more complicated response in terms of writing, the level of memory being tapped is lower. Practice with recognition tasks provides the student with a variety of opportunities to review and rehearse specific facts and relationships. This practice, particularly if monitored to ensure that the correct relationships are being rehearsed, results in students' being able to sort out and make sense of information being learned more rapidly than they could prior to the practice. If the key terms and ideas to know are basically understood and familiar to the students, then more complex tasks such as recalling specific information and thinking about how various ideas may be related to each other becomes more possible. In this sense, copying and recognition practice tasks provide the student with the basic script from which interpretation and analysis may be developed.

Level 3: Recall with Cues

When the basic script (terms and ideas) of the lesson is familiar, the teacher should then begin to "fade out" the degree of prompting that students have had. To be most effective, this fading should be gradual. Rather than jumping immediately from recognition to total recall, an intermediate step is helpful. This step asks the student to add one more task to the sorting he is already doing; when the associations between ideas and between terms and their definitions have been learned, then with a little prompting those associations may be readily recalled. This level (recall with cues) is intended to provide that transition. Such cues as part of words may be used when the answer sought is a bit ambiguous. When a blank space is to be completed, either the definition of the answer sought is given or a hint is provided nearby. By providing a variety of such experiences for students, as well as such activities as small group self-quizzes (a form of peer tutoring) the teacher increases the likelihood that students will be able to recall information at a later time.

Level 4: Total Recall

When students have had structured experience in dealing with the content of a particular unit or topic of study, *and* when activities have been provided in which recall of information has been practiced, *and* when the teacher determines that total recall of information is the desired outcome, *then* additional activities should be provided to ensure that students learn the materials to this level of proficiency.

It is particularly important that the student not only be exposed to the content of the material covered by a test, but also to the form in which a test will be given. The results of a study conducted in the Learning Research and Development Center in Pittsburgh show that "students are more likely to answer correctly if they have been directly taught the material covered by a test and if they have been frequently exposed to the test format".

STUDY GUIDES

Why Develop Study Guides?

The teacher's task is one of helping students learn what is important in a given course of study. Determining what is necessary to learn serves as an advance organizer for both the student (in guiding study and practice activities) and the teacher (in focussing instruction on key issues and difficult concepts). Developing clear and complete study guides has been found to be very helpful in a number of ways:

1. It serves as a review for the teacher.
2. It increases the teacher's feeling of self-confidence and encourages creativity in presenting materials.
3. It gives the student a preview of what he is about to study.
4. It gives the student an organized structure for learning.
5. It increases the student's recognition of important points in the text or lesson.
6. It makes retention easier by providing categories of information.
7. It increases continuity in the class, should a substitute by required.

8. It provides specific information about the assignment for others who wish to help the student (e.g., parents; resource room teachers; tutors).

In short, taking the time to prepare clear and comprehensive study guides gives all people involved a more clear idea of what is expected and what is to be taught. Certainly this is at first a time-consuming process, and may require several hours of preparation. It has been our observation, however, that by the second or third time through the procedure, the time required to prepare a study guide has been reduced to as little as one half-hour.

How to Prepare a Study Guide

Being familiar with the material is the teacher's first step in preparing a study guide. Once the textual material and any other information the teacher wishes to include have been identified and reviewed, the process of selecting and organizing this material begins. Most content areas can be divided into three major categories of information: vocabulary or key terms, ideas or concepts to learn, and analysis and critical thinking skills related to the material. Because the focus in this paper is on retention of factual information, only the first two of these categories are addressed in the study guide. Additional teaching activities within the class such as discussion and projects enable the teacher to elaborate on the basic factual material by encouraging higher-level thinking processes.

To select and organize the factual information to be learned:

1. List the major categories of information in the material to be learned, such as:
   a. Key terms (vocabulary and phrases)
   b. Specific facts, ideas and concepts to learn.

2. Select information considered important to know (for example, *which you would test*), and list under the categories identified above. Include definitions and page numbers in this listing, so that going back to retrieve this information is not necessary.

3. When subcategories become evident, organize the information selected accordingly. For example:

a. Key terms	b. Ideas & Concepts
1. People	1. Trends
2. Events	2. Systems
3. Places	3. Causes
4. Definitions	4. Procedures

4. Prepare the study guide for use. There are several considerations which should be kept in mind during this step:
   a. The format (organization and placement of items within the study guide will affect its flexibility for use with students at different ability levels). For example, if parts of the study guide are to be blocked out for students with independent study and referencing skills, this is more easily accomplished if the key terms or ideas are arranged in columns. Refer to the "how to use" section below for ideas which have implications for formatting.
   b. Production suggestions:
      1. Type the study guide rather than using handwriting.
      2. Use at least Pica-sized type.
      3. Group related material together visually (by spacing) to help students keep it organized.
      4. Stencils or photocopies are preferable to dittos.
      5. Print on only one side of the page, especially if dittos must be used.

It is recognized that these suggestions have a cost, both in time and in supplies. The ultimate value to the students' mastery of the material, however, offsets at least a part of this added cost. In addition, the organization of material which results from careful initial development has long-term benefits for the teacher because of the possibility for future uses of the same guides.

The above procedures have been described in general. Individual teachers may differ significantly in the manner in which information is selected for inclusion in the study guide. For example, if the teacher has already developed a test to be given, the material contained therein constitutes an excellent source for the material to be included in the guide. Conversely, if the test has not yet been developed, the study guide also serves as a test development guide for the teacher.

In some instances a teacher might wish to include material from a variety of sources through class presentation. In compiling the study guide, this additional information could also be included, thereby expanding the subject matter given to the student as well as increasing the teacher's latitude in selection of content.

Example 2. Revised Study Guide

Key terms

WORD	*DEFINITION*
navigation	finding one's way
trade	buying and selling things
trade route	way between trade centers
civilized	people living in organized groups
civilization	organized groups of people
astrolabe	old navigation tool used to find North/South
latitude	measurement of North/South distance
sphere	round, ball-like object
chart a course	deciding in what direction to sail
log book	record of ship's travel
caravel	ship with triangular sails
PEOPLE	
Prince Henry	Portuguese navigator and explorer
PLACES	
Cathay	another name for China
Indies	another name for India
Ottoman Empire	country set up by Muslim Turks

IDEAS TO KNOW

A. Centers of civilization
   1. Middle East
   2. China
   3. India
   4. Europe

B. Things traded
   1. spices
   2. gold and silver
   3. cotton and silk
   4. jewelry

C. Three reasons trade was difficult
   1. Land routes to East were controlled by Muslim Turks
   2. Small amount of goods to trade
   3. The merchants were sometimes robbed

D. People disliked sailing on the Atlantic Ocean
   1. Water was rough
   2. Afraid of:
      a. sailing off edge of world
      b. sea monsters

E. Problems with navigation
   1. Needed better ships
   2. Needed better maps
   3. Needed better tools (instruments)

F. Instruments (tools) for navigation
   1. Astrolabe - helped sailors
   2. Quadrant - helped find their location
   3. Magnetic compass - points North
   4. Sandglass - used to tell time

Suggestions for Classroom Use of Study Guides

Experience has illustrated that most students, including those who have been "mainstreamed", score higher on tests after material to be learned is specifically identified, practice activities have been provided, and a variety of presentation techniques have been used. Research has shown that we learn 50% of what we both see and hear, and 70% of what is discussed with others (Glasser, 1969). Based on this and other findings, it is recommended that teachers use visual aids and discussion techniques when presenting new material.

Study guides can be used in a variety of ways. Using a transparency of the guide is an excellent method for introducing new material. Discussion is stimulated by leaving the definitions and page numbers out of the transparency, thereby providing the students an opportunity to read the words and discuss them within their own frame of knowledge. Such an initial presentation uses both visual and auditory input, allowing more students the opportunity to learn. In addition, an initial overview of this nature gives the students a set for what they will be studying in the following activities.

When introducing any new technique (as in using study guides for class presentations) the students must be oriented to the process. Rules for discussion and participation should be determined and explained. Students need time to adjust to a new procedure, and the teacher must provide guidance and structure to help this adjustment. To encourage participation in the first study guide discussion, the student can earn "daily work" credit by participating. It has been our observation that careful monitoring of class discussion makes it more likely that all students will contribute. To help in this monitoring, such arrangements as selecting a student for record-keeping and reinforcing specific responses might be tried. Regardless of the techniques the teacher selects, it is important to enforce the established rules for discussion, and to reinforce adherence to these rules.

In addition to using the study guide for initial presentation, it may be readily used for additional purposes such as:

1. A guide to test writing for the teacher
2. A simplified method for reviewing material in preparation for a test
3. A check sheet for students to use in correcting their practice work sheets (described below). This is particularly effective for the student because it provides immediate corrective feedback. In addition, it reduces the time necessary for correction of papers by the teacher. Either an over-

head transparency or the completed study guide can be used for this checking.

4. An excellent reference for other people (for example, resource room teachers and parents) who wish to help the student in his/her studies.

After students have been introduced to new material, practice activities should be provided to facilitate retention. As already mentioned, such practice activities must be arranged sequentially, to progress from simple to more complex skills. Based on the levels of memory described in the introduction, it is important that students be given copying activities, before they are asked to recall. Prior to developing practice activities the teacher should determine the level of memory to be tested. This is particularly important in that practice should lead to that level of mastery. For example, if the test is at the recognition level, then practice at higher levels of memory (recall with cues or total recall) would be unnecessary.

COPYING

The first practice activities involve copying, which increases the student's familiarity with the material. Copying gives the student the first opportunity to rehearse the material in the study guide. Students interact with the material by writing, which is a way of learning. For the handicapped, this may be a way to break down the frustration caused by numerous unsuccessful experiences. Students who have avoided tasks, rather than fail, may be shown that they can be successful with copying activities. In some cases, verbal copying (verbal rehearsal) is provided, as when students are asked to repeat discussion facts.

Copying activities can be developed in two ways. First, they can be verbatim from the study guide. To produce these, the study guide is typed in its entirety and copies are made. Definitions of terms and portions of ideas to be learned are then blocked out either with correction fluid to "white out" portions or covered with self-adhesive labels. The needed copies are then run. In the example given (see example 3), note that page numbers were not deleted. For the advanced group in the class, even these may be blocked.

The second type of copying work (see example 4) looks much like a typical assignment sheet or test. It was written from the guide but with slight variation; it is not sequential, some words have been substituted, and the format differs. These too may be produced with or without page number cues. Both types of copying worksheets can be used to individualize for groups within the classroom.

Either type of copying worksheet described above may be used at a variety of skill levels. For handicapped students, the worksheet can be completed using the study guide as an information source (directly copying from the study guide). For students with "average" skill levels, the textbook is the primary information source. Page numbers have been left on the worksheet as cues for these students. For the highest functioning students, even the page numbers may be deleted from the worksheet, so that their referencing skills may be brought to bear in using the textbook as a primary information source. It should be noted at this point that all three of these activities are copying activities, in that the information being practiced is directly available to the student for transfer from one place to another.

In addition to the above, other classroom applications of copying activities might include completing the worksheet as a class activity (using an overhead transparency), with students locating answers either in their textbooks or on their study guides. In addition, these worksheets might be used either as independent classwork or as homework. In some cases, the teacher might use them as open book tests. In all cases, these copying experiences give students the background to move on to higher levels of responding.

Example 3. Copying Worksheet for Students Using the Textbook

Key terms

WORD	*DEFINITION*	
navigation		(p. 32)
trade		(p. 25)
trade route		(p. 25)
civilized		(p. 27)

(continue with key terms as shown)

Ideas to know

A. Centers of civilization
   1.
   2.
   3.
   4.

B. Things traded
   1.
   2.
   3.
   4.

(continue with ideas to know as shown)

Example 4. Copying Worksheet for Students Using the Study Guide

1. Navigation is _____.
2. The 4 centers of civilization are:
_____ _____ _____ _____.
3. Europe and Asia traded:
   A. _____
   B. _____
   C. _____
4. Three instruments used for navigation are _____ _____ _____.
5. The three ways ships were improved were _____ _____ _____.
6. The navigators kept records of their ship's travel in a _____ book.
7. A _____ is a navigation tool.
8. _____ is buying and selling things.
9. _____ was a Portuguese navigator and explorer.
10. The ways between trade centers are called _____ _____.
11. The North-South Measurement on a map is called _____
12. Another name for China is _____.

RECOGNITION

Recall of subject matter is an extremely complex process. Not only must the student have available in memory all of the information and relationships necessary, but he must be able to retrieve it at the right time. The most effective way to provide for this is to increase the amount of practice during initial learning. If we expect students to use factual information, we must include arrangements for practicing its retrieval. The recognition level of memory provides this in that it requires that the student have retained information about the subject matter to the degree that she/he can recognize it when it is once again presented. This does not, however, require that she/he be able to recall this subject matter completely on her/his own. Rather, such activities provide for rehearsal of relationships and associations.

Recognition requires that a choice of answers be available to the student. Performance involves distinguishing an "old" stimulus from any number of "new" ones that may also be present. By identifying correct responses from structured choices, comprehension of concepts is encouraged. There are several major types of recognition items which may be constructed:

1. Matching (words to pictures; dates to events; words of definitions; characters to description, etc.)
2. Multiple choice (sentence completion; selecting positive instances; identifying negative instances; analogies, etc.)
3. True/false questions
4. Sorting and categorizing.

The major characteristics of recognition activities are that the student has already rehearsed the material at least once, and that the correct response sought is immediately available for the student for possible selection.

At the recognition level, practice items should reinforce the concepts included in the study guide. The student's task is to recognize the correct answer from those provided and to make active responses to those structured choices. However, practice items should not be obscure or overly subtle.

When matching or multiple choice format is used, we suggest limiting the possible responses to five. Research has shown that students can deal most effectively with three to seven items at a time. Thus, while a teacher may give many practice questions, the student should select the correct response from about five alternatives.

Missing blank items should also provide choices. Two short choices listed under the blank usually is the most convenient, although a list of more choices may be included at the end of the section. Leaving a blank but providing no choices requires a higher level of memory, and is included in the next section (recall with cues). The reader should also note that asking a student to correct false answers in a true/false format is *not* a recognition activity. Determining whether the item is true or false requires memory at the recognition level; requiring a student to correct an item calls for recall beyond recognition.

One or several recognition level worksheets may be developed, depending on the needs of the student, the length of the unit, and the time available to the teacher for their development. The following is an example of several recognition items which might be developed for practice at this level.

Example 5. Recognition Worksheet Examples

Select the definition

1. Navigation
   A) A sewer
   B) Finding one's way
   C) A round, ball-like object
2. Trade
   A) People living together

B) Record of a ship's travels
C) Buying and selling things

Select a word

3. Organized group of people
   A) navigation B) sphere C) civilization
4. Navigation tool used to determine North and South
   A) astrolabe B) sphere C) caravel

True/False:

5. A log book shows the record of a ship's travels. True or False?
6. A caravel is a ship with four masts. True or False?

Fill in the blanks:

7. _____ was a Portuguese navigator and explorer.
   King George
   Prince Henry
8. Modern Indonesia was once called _____.
   Atlantic Islands Spice Islands

Matching

9. astrolabe	A. Let them know if they were moving North or South
10. sandglass	B. Helped them find their location
11. quadrant	C. Used to tell time

Label each sentence as a:

A. Center of civilization
B. Thing traded
C. Trade difficulty
D. Atlantic sailing problem

_____ 12. Spices
_____ 13. Middle East
_____ 14. Landroutes to the East were controlled by the Muslim Turks
_____ 15. Rough water
_____ 16. People thought the world was flat
_____ 17. China
_____ 18. Jewelry
_____ 19. Small amounts of goods

20. Complete this chart

Problem of better ships	Navigation instruments	Better maps
1.	1.	1.
2.	2.	2.

A. Changed the shape to be longer, lower and larger
B. Chart with latitude and longitude
C. Started to use both square and triangular sails (coronets)
D. Use of globes
E. Magnetic compass
F. Sandglass

Recognition worksheets may be put on overhead transparencies, for use as stimulus in guided class discussion. This transparency may be completed and used as a key for students to correct their own worksheets. In addition, students might be asked to substantiate their responses by making reference to the text or other information sources used. The teacher may find it useful to keep a completed copy of all recognition worksheets available in a folder for students to use in correcting subsequent worksheets.

Recognition level worksheets may be given as homework for individual students. Because homework should provide appropriate practice, some students may need to refer to their study guides. Although at this level students should be encouraged to complete the practice activities without their study guides, occasional reference to the guides will help ensure practice of *appropriate* responses.

It should be noted that many subjects need not be learned beyond a recognition level. If the types of items described above are to be used as test items, practice activities need not go beyond this level.

RECALL WITH CUES

Once a student can recognize a correct response, it is time to bridge the gap between storage and retrieval of information. Having provided the student with rehearsal activities (copying) and with practice in selecting correct responses (recognition), we now provide students with rehearsal in retrieving information. Recall worksheets which include cues provide practice by giving prompts or hints until the essential performance is achieved. Such activities take the student one step closer to independent recall, but provide clues when "hurdle help" is needed.

The most effective prevention for forgetting is repetition. Recalling with cues provides a student with practice in retaining and remembering while using a higher level memory than recognition. At the same time, additional practice and rehearsal of concepts included in the study guide is provided.

The cues which are selected for each item will depend greatly upon the teacher's method of presentation. Recall during testing is improved if the stimulus used is similar to the stimulus encountered during practice. If records, tapes, or or other auditory cues were provided during presentation, they may be used again to help students recall the information. If classroom presentation and practice included three-dimensional models or manipulative activities, cues might be kinesthetic or tactile. Similarly, if visual aids were used during instruction, visual cues are helpful during practice and testing. In general, developing activities at this level involves identifying key phrases or concepts to be recalled, and providing effective prompts for students. The following are several types of activities which might be used in developing practice at this level of memory.

Example 6. Recall With Cues Sample Items

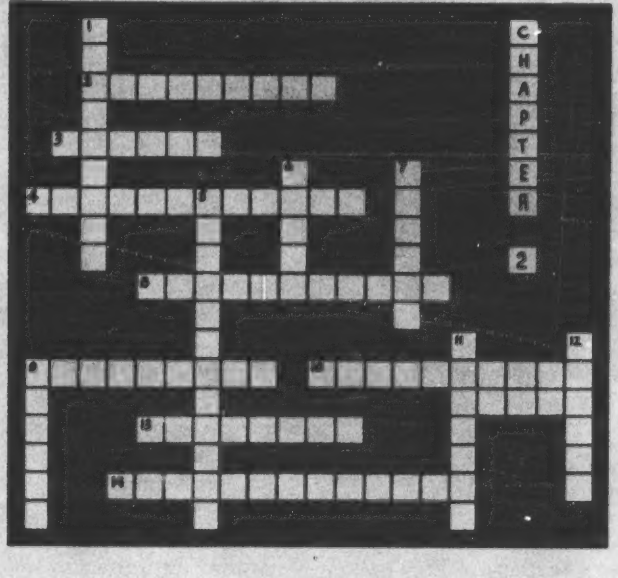
1. L_____ is a measurement of North and South distance.
2. People who live in organized groups are said to be C_____ED.
3. Prince Henry was a _____ because he helped people find their way.
4. The 4 centers of civilization in 1500 A.D. were C_____,
   Middle East, I_____, and E_____.
5. Some things that people traded were _____ (flavoring), jewels,
   _____ (valuable minerals), and _____ (cloth materials).

Across

2 Way between trade centers (2 words)
3 Record of ship's travel
4 Deciding in what direction to sail (3 words)
8 Portuguese navigator and explorer (2 words)
9 People living in organized groups
10 Finding one's way
13 Measurement of North/South distance
14 Country set up by Muslim Turks (2 words)

Down

1 Old navigation tool used to find North/South
5 Organized groups of people
6 Buying and selling things
7 Round, ball-like object
9 Another name of China
11 Ship with triangular sails
12 Another name for India



As with study guides and recognition worksheets, recall with cues worksheets may be placed on overhead transparencies and used for class discussion. While study guides *may* be used to complete these worksheets (particularly for some students encountering difficulty), students should be encouraged to complete the worksheet on their own. Such worksheets have been found helpful both in the class and as individual homework.

Students may be encouraged to correct their own work in one of two ways: a completed worksheet may be displayed on an overhead trasnparency for use as part of a class activity, or a completed worksheet may be obtained for individual use from a teacher.

If the teacher decides to administer a test at this level, practice activities need not go beyond (i.e., to total recall). Students should have an opportunity for rehearsal and practice, and for becoming familiar with the level of recall expected for testing.

RECALL

Total recall of subject matter is the most difficult level of memory. It requires the student to retrieve facts and concepts without the benefits of choices or cues. For material to be readily accessible for total recall, the student should have ample opportunity for organizing the information and practice in retrieving it from storage.

Total recall requires the student independently to associate questions with answers. Students must remember information over an extended period of time and then sequence, cluster, or otherwise organize that information for a response. Typical total recall questions are of the essay or "open-ended" type, and involve the use of more skills than partial recall of isolated facts. (See example 7; does it look familiar? Remember the types of practice which prepared the student for this level.)

Example 7. Total Recall Sample Items

1. What does "civilized" mean?
2. What were the centers of civilization?
3. What did they trade?
4. Why did trade become difficult?
5. Why didn't people sail on the Atlantic Ocean?
6. What are some problems of navigation?
7. How did they make better ships?
8. What are some instruments used for navigation?
9. How did they make better maps?
10. Define the following: trade routes, Cathay, Ottoman Empire, Prince Henry, navigation, astrolabe, caravel.

A particular characteristic of total recall questions is their tendency to also draw on interpretive or critical thinking skills. By relating and organizing facts to respond to such questions the student must go beyond simple recall of those facts; often problem-solving and other skills are needed. If such skills are needed they should be tapped during instruction as well, through such activities as discussions and simulation exercises. At the risk of being redundant, it is important to ensure that students have had practice experience both at the level of recall being tested and with the type of question to be asked. Test questions should relate directly to material which had been covered in class.

The decision to use total recall questions should be a careful one. Recall of facts which are used regularly in the person's life (e.g., making change) should be learned to the level of total recall. However, the majority of information included in the school curriculum need not be learned to this level; information which can easily be found in basic reference books, which is not critical to the daily life of a citizen, or which provides enrichment or minor background information (such as trivia) does not call for total recall proficiency. In fact, a more useful and long-lasting skill for the student would be knowing where to obtain information when it is not readily recalled.

The use of total recall items should be a conscious choice for which students have been prepared with practice activities and repeated rehearsal. If additional skills are to be applied (e.g., critical thinking or evaluation), practice should be provided for these as well.

TESTS

In study guide development, the content to be presented is identified. A professional decision is made regarding the important concepts and terms to be emphasized during instruction. During this content organization stage, it is equally important to make a decision regarding the level of memory to be tested.

Test writing is usually a time-consuming process. However, having previously identified the important concepts and terms when writing the study guide, test writing becomes a simple procedure. It takes significantly more time to decide what to test than it does to actually write the items.

We have outlined four levels of memory: copying, recognition, recall with cues, and total recall. Certainly the last three levels lend themselves to content mastery testing. The teacher may decide to use some combination of these levels for testing, depending on the nature of the subject matter, or use only a single level in constructing a

test. Regardless of the level of memory selected for testing, practice activities should be provided up to and including that level. Recognition tests can be appropriate for the majority of content areas, especially for students who have difficulty with total recall. Such test items as multiple choice items focus the student on the information which was presented, rather than focusing unduly on deficient skill areas such as writing.

Experience in field-testing the types of materials described in this paper has shown that students need assistance in familiarizing themselves with alternative testing formats. While nonhandicapped students can usually score well on total recall tests (which often tap prior knowledge and experience in addition to new information), handicapped students frequently have difficulty at this level. When important information has been specifically identified in a study guide, however, and when a recognition test is given, we have observed handicapped students scoring as well as (and in some cases, better than) their nonhandicapped peers.

In conclusion, we have presented suggestions for planning instruction for students who have difficulty learning subject matter material from textbooks or who have difficulty with unstructured recall. An effective alternative for individualizing in a large group is to carefully prepare study guides which specify instructional content to be learned. This basic "script" can than be used to provide sequential practice activities to assist the student in reaching the desired level of mastery. The additional time and patience required during the development of these materials will be rewarded with increased student achievement and participation in the class.

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5. COOPERATIVE TEACHING OF SENIOR HIGH SOCIAL STUDIES TO HANDICAPPED STUDENTS

by Roger Lipelt and Katy Meyers

An experiment at Wayzata Senior High School, Minnesota, combined the efforts of one special education teacher and one social studies teacher in designing a curriculum. The primary aim of this planning was a curriculum that could fulfill the need to inform students about social studies and afford them the chance for success while learning. Roger Lipelt is a social studies teacher and Katy Meyers is a special learning and behavior problems teacher, both at Wayzata Senior High School, Minnesota.

Social Studies loom like a menacing cloud over the heads of many students but perhaps most of all over those with handicaps. In a discipline where reading and writing skills are essential to success, students who are weak in these areas become more discouraged each year and often give up or become behavior problems. At Wayzata Senior High School in Minnesota we have attempted to help students with a class designed to meet their educational needs.

A joint venture seemed necessary to design a curriculum that could fulfill both the need to inform students about social studies and offer them the chance for success while learning. A team of one special education teacher (learning disabilities and behavior problems) and one social studies teacher was formed. The administration approved an experimental class limited to 25 sophmores who would be identified through a cooperative effort with junior high teachers. The ability levels of students selected vary significantly and include handicaps such as behavioral disorders, specific learning disabilities, mild retardation.

Planning the Course

In planning this course, we encountered three major questions: How do we evaluate students? What do we teach? How do we teach it? Perhaps the most consistent factor had been our belief that if learning is likely to occur, students must experience success. In the past their problems have interfered with successful learning in the traditional environment. Therefore, in planning the course we were determined to evaluate students in ways other than traditional written tests. Initially we wrote individual contracts with students in which they had two main options: pass-fail or a letter grade. All but two students elected the P-F system. This method reduces the anxiety and fear of failure, but it also seems to reduce the incentive for the quality of work that we felt many students capable of accomplishing.

Grading System

At the beginning of the second trimester, we decided to adopt a grading system which would stimulate and prompt greater achievement and yet make it possible for all students to succeed and feel capable. In our effort to avoid major tests as a basis for grading, we concluded that daily grades could be a satisfactory alternative. We award up to three points a day for: 1. completion of assignment, 2. appropriate behavior, and 3. a positive effort. To effect the desired behavior, we employ two major control mechanisms. If a student fails to complete an assignment, he/she is not admitted to class until it is completed. We are able to use the staff in the L.D. Resource Room to assist students in completing assignments while class is convening. When they display inappropriate behavior, students are asked to leave and go for time out to the Resource Room. In either of these instances students lose daily points.

We have found that our students value the class. The most effective control we have is the possibility that if students fail to perform, they will be returned to a traditional social studies class. Results of an evaluation completed at the end of the first trimester indicated that 95% of our students wished to remain in our class and thought they were benefiting from it.

Through the accumulation of daily points and extra credit project points, students can measure their progress and seem to feel positive about their accomplishments. Although the class attitude varies from day to day, we feel that students are more confident about the learning process in social studies as indicated by daily grades.

Course Content and Methodology

Social Studies for tenth graders is divided into three trimesters and covers American history from 1877 to the present. In our American History Skills course we are paralleling the sequence followed by the traditional class in order to utilize speakers and films available to other students.

We proceeded with the belief that learning by doing is best for our students and that a variety of activities is necessary. We would like to outline briefly some examples of procedures and methods we have found successful:

Short Reading Assignments. Assigned readings are no more than three pages. Reading levels vary within the 4-9th grade range. Key concepts are stressed and discussed before the reading. Immediately after the reading, short questions about main ideas and factual information are asked either verbally or in writing. Sometimes we use these readings to develop thinking patterns by asking students to apply historical concepts to present-day events. Our students like to discuss current events, so that the more we can relate the past to the present, the greater is the interest level of our students.

In the beginning of the year we asked students to finish assignments at home and bring them to class. Many forgot them or failed to complete them, so we soon switched our approach. Time in class was given for assignments and we were both available to help individuals or small groups. We knew that some students needed to be read to. A non-reader is not necessarily a non-learner, however. We have worked on reinforcement of study skills, library skills, map and chart reading skills. We have also ordered magazines and have found them to be appropriate both in content and reading level. Students did crossword puzzles and word games for extra credit and many of the articles were timely and offered the students a welcome relief from textbooks. We frequently used the magazines as a springboard for writing. When a situation was presented or a question posed, we had the students put their thoughts in writing and compared the various responses.

Vocabulary Development. It became apparent that many students needed to increase their vocabularies before they could discuss certain concepts. At first we merely noted important words verbally. Later we discussed and posted important vocabulary words, defining and correctly using words in a sentence. As vocabulary development increased to 20-25 words, we found one successful way to drill students. Groups of students, often by row, formed teams and had to define and use words correctly in sentences. Team members could help each other but only one answer was accepted. Points for correct responses were completed and heavy praise was given the winning team.

Use of Films, Filmstrips and Video Tapes. Many interesting video materials are available for classes in U.S. History. We have found that worksheets work well with filmstrips because we can pause and give time for students to catch up as the filmstrip is in progress or can even stop and discuss something, continuing when all are ready. We have more success with films and video tapes if we discuss them afterwards or ask for a theme in reaction to the material. Our students get lost if they are asked to watch, listen, and write at the same time.

Individual Conferences. Both teachers meet with each student and point out what is acceptable and not acceptable (or strength and weaknesses) in performance. We suggest areas where the student needs to work and complement his/her strengths. During these conferences we are as specific as possible.

Worksheets. Worksheets seem to work better when given in connection with written materials. Our students must take more time to think about information before they are to digest it. If the material is written, they have the luxury of going over it twice or even three times before they attempt to write an answer.

Games. We have used games as a reward. Students are occasionally allowed to play games when they have performed well in assigned activity. Games such as Dogfight, Broadside, U.S. Bingo, Stratego, and Scrabble are used.

Individual Folders and Calendars. We distribute folders containing a monthly calendar to each student. A reminder of ways to earn points is at the top of the calendar and spaces are provided for students to mark and keep track of each day's activities. This provides another means for students to evaluate themselves and their progress.

Writing Deficiency of Our Students. Patience in developing writing skill has been our biggest strength. We began by doing a variety of exercises in which we asked students to complete or write one sentence. In history one of the most important tools for understanding events is the law of Cause and Effect. We were able to

develop thinking and writing skills at the same time by using this law as a basis for a writing exercise. We gave the students an event or cause in history by starting a sentence with a phrase and then asked students to finish the sentence with words which complete the idea to make a true statement.

For instance, we used the invention of the automobile as a cause. We started a sentence as follows: Because the automobile was invented (... A...). Students could easily think of words that would complete this thought. At the same time they would develop a pattern for writing sentences. The next phase of this exercise asked students to take the words in the (A) portion of the sentence and repeat the procedure by making a new sentence as illustrated in the following: Because (repeat the words from A) → (... B...). Using this device, our students were able to extend their thoughts and understanding about the effects of the automobile in our society in ways that surprised them and would please any teacher. Through constant use of this technique, our students began to write meaningful sentences and became more confident of their ability to do so.

The most successful of our writing activities was a reaction paper to the video file "The Grapes of Wrath". As they watched the film, students kept notes of what happened to the Joad family. After the film, we gave the writing assignment in a series of four steps. By providing an organization for students, we overcame a major obstacle. They often want to do well but do not know how to approach an assignment. We simply organized it for them.

Step 1. Students selected four of the things that happened to the Joad family from their notes. They then chose the four that they considered most important.

Step 2. As the first part of a paragraph they described how the event occurred in terms of the story.

Step 3. They told how they felt or reacted to this. This process was repeated in four paragraphs.

Step 4. We asked them to make some conclusions about the effects that the Depression had on Americans.

The procedure to be followed was explained and put on the board. Papers could be developed in five paragraphs as follows:

Paragraph 1. Description of first event, explanation of how it happened in the story, and personal reaction to the event.

Paragraph 2. Same procedure as the above paragraph, but description of the second event.

Paragraph 3. Same procedure as above paragraph but description of third event.

Paragraph 4. Same procedure as above paragraph but description of fourth event.

Paragraph 5. Concluding statements about the effects of the Depression. The papers handed in were the best work yet for many students.

This course is well worth the effort that we are making. We are meeting the educational needs of many students who, without such a class, would experience another unsatisfactory experience or perhaps failure. We recognize that our course can be made better and intend to work on curriculum. We need to collect and prepare a variety of materials that will benefit our students. Our students are making gains both in understanding historical concepts and in self-esteem. Mainstreaming appears to be working in this instance and is demonstrating to us that all students have dignity, worth, and the capacity to grow, develop, and learn.

6. IMPROVING THE HANDICAPPED STUDENT'S SELF-CONCEPT: CLASSROOM STRATEGIES

by Gerald P. Elovitz

Students learn to value themselves from how they view themsleves as accepted by other people whom they trust. The first consistent challenges to children, feelings of success or failure in comparison to other children, occur in school. Instructional activities should be designed to help children deal with their "differences" before they begin to feel inferior. The author is a classroom teacher and school psychologist. He is a Clinical Fellow in Psychology at the Harvard Medical School and associated with Lewis Bay Mental Health Associates, Inc., Cape Cod, Massachusetts.

Because handicapped students may believe they are different from or less capable than their classmates, they develop hidden handicaps of low self-esteem, poor self-image, little confidence, etc. Such a self-image may often be more handicapping than a more obvious physical or mental disability. Children who believe they will fail probably will fail, regardless of their capabilities to benefit from training or education to overcome their handicaps. Teachers are often aware of this and Individual Educational Plans frequently specify the need for students to feel successful (especially in their initial attempts) in completing educational objectives. An experience of success can help provide the motivation to a child to work at and strive for conquering difficult school tasks.

How a child feels about him/herself and other people (e.g., teachers and peers) is critical to building a self-image as capable and *not* different from other children. Students learn to value themselves from how they view themselves as accepted by other people whom they trust. Teachers who make clear to their students that school work is important encourage them to develop feelings of self-esteem and personal worth. These children are motivated to work to overcome their handicaps to their best abilities and accept themselves as not unique or different in negative ways from other children.

THE GROUP METHOD

Techniques of teaching students to value themsleves are really methods of demonstrating "acceptance" of the child by both the teacher and peers. Carl Rogers has often described how people who feel accepted and perceive genuine interest in themselves form others tend to develop positive self-regard. A teacher can use many activities to enhance acceptance in the classroom; the most effective strategies encourage children to express their feelings in an empathetic group, usually made up of peers. All members of the group should be informed that each will have a turn to speak and that all should respect and listen to their neighbors. Children can be grouped by age and attention span (usually five to eight in a group is a good size), but there is no need to form groups of children with similar handicaps. In fact, inclusion of nonhandicapped students is an advantage that helps teach acceptance among all children.

The classroom teacher leads the group sessions, which meet at least twice a week, for 30 to 60 minutes per session. Activities are essential with elementary age students, who usually have had little experience in verbally expressing their feelings. While open discussion can be encouraged, the emphasis is on simply showing acceptance (which requires only attentive listening) for each group member when speaking. Most frequently, each child would be asked to speak, going around the group. A child who does not wish to speak may say so, and this right to privacy should be accepted by the rest of the group. Even the most verbally reticent child will speak when ready, i.e., when secure enough in the belief that whatever is said will be accepted by the rest of the group.

STRATEGIES

Each child should be given a folder in which to keep drawings and other materials. They should write their own name, birthdate, address, etc. on the folder and be given time at the end of each session to color and decorate the folder. Each drawing or written story included in the folder should be signed and dated by the child who authored it. The content of drawings and stories will generally show increasing maturity and expression as the school year progresses. Growth can be seen by studying

the sequence of drawings. Group members should be asked to draw pictures of themselves each month; these portraits act as mirrors that reflect the student's changing self-image during the year.

Activities can and should be developed by the teacher according to the group's interests; however, one or more of the following strategies could be used in every session:

1. Draw-and-Describe It. Blank paper and pencils (or crayons) are provided to each group member with the instructions to draw something. It may be necessary to use a time limit chosen so all members can finish their drawings, but none are left waiting too long for others to finish. Drawing topics such as those that follow usually prove interesting to most children:

> Draw your most unpleasant thought... most pleasant thought... greatest wish... angriest time... happiest time... favorite game... family... best friend(s)... worst enemy... self... scariest dream or thought... saddest moment... favorite animal... summer activity ... best sport..., etc.

When the students have all completed their drawings, each child is asked to describe his or her picture to the rest of the group who may then ask questions about the depicted event. Drawings are natural means of expression to most children, and even verbally handicapped youngsters can express a thought in a picture and enjoy the interest of peers and teacher in their work. If during a group discussion a child should bring up a feeling which the rest of the group seems especially interested in, the whole group can to make drawings of that feeling with themselves in the pictures.

2. Tell-a-Story. Going around the group, each student is asked to:

> Tell a story about your best friend... most exciting moment... party you would like to go to... person you would like to be... job you would like to have... person you would like to marry... your biggest dream... your vacation... etc.

Fact or fancy may be specified for the story's content, and group members may question the speaker after the story is told. Story-telling is an ancient means of human communication and should prove interesting to any child. Older children can write their stories and then read them to the group. The teacher should record the basic storyline told by younger students to be placed in their folders. This emphasizes the importance of the young child's imagination and verbalizations about themselves.

3. Individual and Group Interview. The teacher begins by interviewing the student sitting on her or his right for one minute. That child then interviews the group member to the right and so on. The teacher should keep track of the time for each interview, and issue a warning when ten seconds are left. The time limit can be lengthened and different methods of selecting interviewer and interviewee may be used, as long as each child has an opportunity to participate in both roles. Questions asked depend on student's ages and abilities, but almost all the following suggestions can be used at the elementary ages:

> What's your name? How old are you? What's your favorite color... car... food... hobby... game... vacation... relative... school subject? What do you think of being spanked in school... getting an allowance... cooking dinner for your family... the President... speaking another language... learning to drive... getting a job? What time do you go to bed?

The interview is usually exciting for children, especially when they think of themselves as reporters on a case. Using an old tape recorder microphone can add realism and increase the fun. Quiet or shy students should be asked yes or no questions at first; questions requiring longer responses (e.g., about attitudes) can be added gradually as their confidence to answer increases. Of course, the teacher should be interviewed, too. Each student always retains the right to refuse to answer any or all questions.

4. Finish-the-Sentence. This is a useful strategy for groups made up of younger or easily distracted children. The teacher attends to each student rapidly in turn, helping to maintain interest and attention. Quickly moving from one child to another, the teacher states an incomplete sentence which group members finish. The same sentence stem can be given to all group members to demonstrate the wide range of differences in a group or different sentence stems can be given to each student. Sentence stems should gradually (over several weeks) change from requiring specific answers to allowing more general responses as the students' confidence increases. Examples of finish-the-sentence stems follow:

> I am proud of _____ . I would like to _____ . I am best when _____ . I should _____ . Someday I'll _____ . I can _____ . I'm _____ . I _____ .
>
> Something I do best is _____ . I like other people to _____ . In school I_____ . My

reading is _____. School is _____. I can learn_____. I know_____. I_____.

My friends think I_____. I like people who _____. People like my_____. My parents are proud of_____. I'm happy when_____. I'm best at_____. I will_____. I_____.

Following a group rotation of sentence finishing, the teacher can comment or ask group members to comment on feelings expressed during the activity.

The above four strategies are designed to facilitate the expression of feelings, beliefs, and thoughts. The task of the teacher and group members is simply to listen or watch each student with respect and interest. The feelings of the handicapped child must be recognized and valued by others (and that recognition made clear to the child) before the student can develop a positive self-concept with which to face the social world effectively. The first consistent challenges to children, the point at which they learn to feel success or failure in comparison to other children, occur in school. Instructional activities should be designed to help students deal with their "differences" from schoolmates before they begin to feel inferior to other children in all respects.

Additional Resources

The teacher has many sources to turn to as an aid in developing programs geared toward enhancing the student's self-concept in the classroom; several excellent resources are:

1. Simon, S.B.; Howe, L.W.; & Kirschenbaum, H. *Values Clarification: A Handbook of Practical Strategies for Teachers and Students.* New York: Hart Publishing Co., Inc., 1972.
This inexpensive paperback book offers 79 systematic techniques to promote the "process of valuing" in interpersonal relationships. Designed for the elementary and secondary teacher in an easy-to-use format, this book is an invaluable resource to build on the four basic strategies outlined here. Interview techniques and sentence-completion examples are provided along with many other ideas.

2. Bessel, H. 1976 Revision of *"The Magic Circle" Methods in Human Development Theory Manual* by U. Palomares and G. Ball. Lamesa, California: Human Development Training Institute, Inc., 1972.
The Magic Circle is a complete program with activities guides for children in preschool through the sixth grade. The theory manual presents a sound logic for the system, based on actual practice with children. The Magic Circle seeks to develop students' self-awareness, self-confidence (mastery), and social interaction. Daily activitites for students groups center on each of these three themes for six-week periods. The techniques are clearly explained and the package format of materials allows the Magic Circle to grow with the child with each successive grade.

3. Gordon, T. *Teacher Effectiveness Training.* New York: Peter H. Wyden, Inc., 1975.
Most useful in this book will be the rationale for, and examples of "active listening" techniques to aid the teacher in providing an environment of acceptance for students when they express their feelings in verbal or non-verbal ways. While important for the group activities, most teachers will find the T.E.T. strategies also useful in their regular classroom teaching to achieve discipline and encourage a positive learning environment.

4. Rogers, C.R. *Freedom to Learn.* Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill, 1969. The original source of how to provide an atmosphere of acceptance through "active listerning," Carl Rogers' book should be consulted as an aid to helping students become self-directing and self-aware in social contexts.

Values Clarification, the Magic Circle, and Teacher Effectiveness Training all offer private workshops in these systems for teachers who wish to develop their skills beyond just using the printed materials. Improving the student's self-concept is critical with handicapped children, and teachers can facilitate this process if they use the right strategies.

7. THE OPEN CLASSROOM APPROACH TO TEACHING SECONDARY SOCIAL STUDIES FOR ALL STUDENTS

by Linda Biemer

In implementing Public Law 94-142, the mainstreamed child must be fully integrated into the regular class. To accomplish this, the open classroom approach at the secondary school level makes available varied learning options for all students. The teacher's main role is that of facilitator of the units which he/she has prepared. The author is assistant professor of education, State University of New York at Binghamton.

Since the passage of Public Law 94-142, secondary social studies teachers, along with other regular educators whose classrooms constitute the "least restrictive environment" for some special education students, are expected to help provide as normal an education as possible for these mainstreamed students who will be placed in their classes. How shall this education be delivered is the question on the minds of the students themselves, their parents, and especially their teachers.

The author believes that one separate lesson should not be prepared to accommodate the mainstreamed student, who will then sit to one side of the classroom and do her/his work while all the other students complete a common lesson with the teacher. Furthermore, the teacher should make judicious exceptions for the mainstreamed child who, at first, probably will not satisfactorily complete the regular class lesson. In short, the approach advocated argues for both fully intergrating the mainstreamed child into the regular class and class curriculum, at the same time making available varied learning options for *all* students—the mainstreamed as well as the "more normal", the slow learner, and even the gifted child, all of whom are usually together in the regular class. The open classroom model would facilitate such an approach. The general classroom set-up, therefore, includes learning or materials centers—one for textbooks, one for filmstrips, another for audiotapes, a fourth for primary source materials, one for artifacts, and so forth. Students work individually or with one or more other students, and at their own pace.

While the students work independently of the teacher the teacher's main role becomes that of facilitator, aiding special and other students on a one-to-one basis, if necessary. Thus all students are afforded the opportunity for individual help from the teacher. The use of this open classroom approach, therefore, assuages one of the major criticisms and fears parents of nonhandicapped children have: that the regular teacher will slight their child in order to spend more time with each child who has a disability.

The greatest amount of teacher time and effort actually goes into the preparation of each unit: (1) finding available print materials—texts, novels, biographies, primary source readings, newspapers, magazines, etc., (2) making, locating, or ordering in advance appropriate audio, visual, and audio-visual materials and games; and (3) developing the learning activities themselves. The sample lessons which follow should serve as models for designing activities to fit other topics and other students. Notice that the same objectives are to be met by all students, yet different activities are available which match the needs, abilities, learning styles, and interests of all students. Whether the teacher assigns students particular activities or whether the student self selects is the pedagogical decision to be made by the teacher, perhaps after experimenting with each approach.

It is not advocated, however, that an entire course be taught using only learning centers and individual or small group independent work, such as the learning mateials below on immigration and the American Revolution suggest. There are days when a lecture or a lecture by film or slides will be more appropriate for the entire class. For the mainstreamed student as well as for all other students, the teacher should write pertinent terms, names, dates, etc. in large print on the overhead as a supplement to her/his lecture or when leading a full class discussion on a film, photographs, or perhaps the remarks of a guest speaker. The materials which follow on geographic determinism illustrate how students work independently much of the time, while during other class periods all students concurrently listen, to specific lectures, view films, or engage in full class discussion.

Developing any curricular materials is a painstaking, time-consuming task. Developing materials to integrate the mainstreamed students successfully into social studies class requires even more time, and may even produce

additional pain for the already overburdened classroom teacher. Yet the greatest pain of all has already been incurred by those handicapped students who, prior to the passage of PL94-142 in 1975, had no legal access to the regular classroom. Their disabilities relegated them to a special section of the school for special classes, intimating to them that because they were "different", they were not to mix with their nonhandicapped peers.

As teachers we are now under legal mandate to provide education for the handicapped. I hope that we are also guided by our own personal and professional mandate by conscience to open up the world of social studies to these children. We should do no less.

FIRST MODEL LESSON PLAN

Topic: American Revolution

Objectives: 1. Students will be able to explain at least three reasons why the American colonists felt they should engage in warfare against and seek independence from England in 1775.

2. Students will be able to explain at least three reasons why the leaders of the government in England felt their nation should engage in warfare against the American colonists in 1775.

General directions and materials:

After examining and using texts and other readings written on various reading levels, films, filmstrips, slides, projectors, and other teacher-made or commercially-produced materials, the students will complete one or more of the following activities according to their abilities, learning styles, interests, and pace. Students may choose to do a second activity for extra credit, or the teacher may assign a second one for students exhibiting difficulty with the first activity undertaken.

Activity 1. Using a current newspaper editorial page as a format guide, the students will prepare the editorial page for a newspaper in Boston (or New York, Philadelphia, Charleston) in 1775 containing at least six (6) items, including an editorial, letters to the editor, guest editorial and political cartoons. Contributions are to be from both Patriots and Loyalists.

Activity 2. Students will present for the entire class, or audio or video-tape for presentation to the teacher and/or class, a series of "press conferences" at which time four of the following will be questioned:

1765 James Otis	George Grenville
1775 Samuel Adams	General Thomas Gage
1776 Thomas Jefferson	King George III
1777 George Washington	General William Howe (or John Burgoyne)
1781 Benjamin Franklin	Lord Cornwallis

A written script might also be prepared. Biographies should also be made available by the teacher or the librarian.

Activity 3. Students will conduct a meeting of the "United Nations Security Council of 1776" to discuss the problems between England and her North American Colonies. Present at the meeting will be representatives from England, France, Spain, Holland, Russia, and the North American Colonies. This special session of the Council will be presented live or videotaped for presentation to the class.

Activity 4. Students will make a bulletin board mural either of drawings, cartoons, or in collage/montage form using magazine pictures, small wooden boats, tea, etc., explaining the causes of the American War for Independence as seen by both American Patriots and by the British and Loyalists.

Activity 5. Students will make two comic books, one explaining the American view and the other the British view of the Revolutionary War, which are to be read by American and by English children.

Activity 6. Students will prepare a national media network "evening news" and the BBC "nightly news" broadcasts for six (6) significant dates of the American Revolutionary period. Dates might include December 17, 1773, April 19, 1775, and July 4, 1776 among others.

SECOND MODEL LESSON PLAN

Topic: Immigration to the United States

Objectives: 1. Students will be able to explain why at least six (6) different groups of people immigrated to the United States between 1607 and the present.

2. Students will be able to explain what difficulties each group encountered once in the United States.
3. Students will be able to explain how those difficulties were resolved.

General directions and materials:

After examining and using texts and other readings written on various reading levels, films, filmstrips, slides, and other teacher-made or commercially produced materials, students will complete one or more of the following activities according to their individual abilities, learning styles, interests and pace. Students may choose to do a second activity for extra credit, or the teacher may assign a second one for students exhibiting difficulty with the first activity undertaken.

Activity 1. Students will view several films, filmstrips and slides on immigration and then complete several teacher-made worksheets which incorporate the above objectives. (The worksheets will be written on reading levels appropriate to the various reading abilities in class.)

Activity 2. Students will write three (3) letters to "family" back home: one letter to a European country, one to an Asian area, and the third to either an African or a Latin American area. The letters will recount their journey to the new country, explain their motives for even coming to America, discuss their prior expectations of and their realizations about their new life in America, and describe their new community and home. Drawings may also be included.

Activity 3. Students will pretend they are ABC's Barbara Walters, CBS's Mike Wallace, or NBC's Tom Snyder. They are to prepare with at least three (3) "immigrants" (other class members) a script for an interview of each immigrant. Audio or videotape the interviews to present to the class and teacher.

Activity 4. Students will pretend they are public relations employees of a firm which represents a factory in Massachusetts, a railroad company in the midwest, and land speculators in the old Northwest Territory. They are to prepare three brochures, one for each client, which would attract immigrants from Europe and Asia. The brochures may be all words, all pictures or drawings, or a combination.

Activity 5. Students will contact local ethnic organizations (Polish-American-Club, Italian-American Club, Ukrainian Social Club, etc.) for the names of recent immigrants to their community. They are to contact two immigrants and prepare several questions to ask regarding their reasons for coming to America and specifically to their town, problems the newcomers encountered in leaving their homeland and entering the U.S., and problems and solutions once the immigrants settled in the U.S. Students will compare their responses with motives, difficulties and problems of immigrants of the 17th, 18th, 19th, and early 20th centuries.

Activity 6. Students will play the board game "Immigrating to America" three times and after each game, write or audiotape a log of each journey. (This board game can be made by the teacher or even by the students themselves. The game of Monopoly is the model. The board will be a world map which indicates the various countries from which immigrants have come. Problems in leaving their homeland and entering the U.S., problems once they are in the U.S., and solutions to those problems will be on the board squares as the students "travel" to and within the U.S. Money, Fortune and Misfortune Cards, playing pieces and dice will also be needed. Write the author for further details.)

THIRD MODEL LESSON PLAN

Concept: Geographic determinism
Time: One week unit
Objective: After completing a self-selected four-day in-class activity, the students will be able to explain how a nation's or a region's geographical features determine, in part, that nation's or region's economy.

Materials: Overhead projector, slide projector and slides of various geographic features in different parts of the world, filmstrip projector and filmstrips of different countries' or regions' geographic and economic features, tape recorders and tapes, encyclopedias, atlases, almanacs, geography texts, travel brochures, *National Geographic* and other pictorial magazines, clay, salt, flour, cloth, glue.

Day 1. Full class in circle; teacher with overhead projectors as part of circle. Brainstorming session as an introduction to the concept. Teacher has already placed in large print on the transparency this question: What are the different types of jobs that most people in our city have? Teacher lists all students, responses on the transparency, enunciating each as he/she does. Teacher then solicits responses from the students to a second question, which is also typed in large print on a transparency: Why are the jobs available in our city and why are the ones available different from jobs in some other cities? Teacher enunciates responses as he/she prints them on the transparency. The teacher next shows slides of different communities around the world, and as he/she does so, different students will describe orally and in detail each slide and hypothesize what types of jobs people in each community represented by each slide probably have and why. The teacher reiterates the main points given by each student and writes them on the transparency. Teacher summarizes by "teaching" the objectives as he/she refers to several of the different slides and hypotheses.

Day 2-4: Students are led by the teacher in a brief review of the main points from the preceding day's class. Students are next told that by the fifth class day each will teach the other members of the class how a nation's or a region's geographical features determine, in part, that area's economy. Students will choose one or more of the following activitites. Each student may work alone or with one or more other students.

Activity 1. Students will make a salt-flour or clay relief map of a real or an imaginary country or area containing at least three (3) geographical features. Students will then compile a list of all the possible types of work people in that area would be engaged in.

Activity 2. Students will draw a relief map using different colors, textures, etc. to identify at least three (3) geographical features. Make a list as in Activity 1.

Activity 3. Students will use cloth, glue and small objects to make a relief map identifying at least three(3) geographical features. Make a list as in Activity 1.

Activity 4. Students will look at additional slides of the geographical features in various countries and regions of the world, and then hypothesize what types of work people in those countries and regions are probably engaged in. The teacher will then identify the country or area for the students so that they can either confirm or reject their hypotheses after consulting various books, articles or filmstrips about each country or region.

Activity 5. Students will use an encyclopedia, an almanac, or other print materials, as well as tapes, records, slides, films and filmstrips to select information about three (3) nations or regions which /they are unfamiliar with. Students will then write a song, a poem or a riddle about each of the three which explains how each nation's or region's physical features influence its economy.

Activity 6. Students will find pictures in *National Geographic* and other magazines and make a collage/ montage about each of three different countries or regions (real or imaginary) illustrating that each area's geographical features do determine, in part, the type of work people engage in in each area.

Day 5: Students will set up their projects (learning centers) for all other students to listen to, look at, feel, or have explained to them. Teacher will collect all projects at the end of class and grade each. Students will grade any three during class. Teacher should make certain that every project is graded by at least three individuals or groups.

8. NOTES ON TEACHING HISTORY TO SOCIALLY, INTELLECTUALLY, OR ACADEMICALLY HANDICAPPED HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

by Glenna G. Casteel

Teaching history to socially, intellectually, or academically handicapped high school students can be frustrating for both the students and the teacher. Careful planning can eliminate the abstract and make history meaningful. The teacher must consider certain characteristics of handicapped students and fit the material to these levels of understanding. The author is a mathematics and American history teacher at Greenville-Green County Vocational School in Greenville, Tennessee.

How much were you able to teach your students today? The answer to this question will greatly depend upon the types of children in the classoom. For social studies teachers of students who are somehow handicapped, this can be a very frustrating question. For history teachers it may be even worse. The subject is so abstract and far removed for students who are socially, intellectually or academically handicapped that they have no base from which to function. What can be done to get these students interested in something which happpened a hundred years ago? These children usually have such limited personal experiences that trying to widen their world of knowledge to include things far away and long ago often frustrates high school history teachers to the point that they simply ignore the handicapped students. This feeling on the part of the teacher often shows itself in small ways such as not showing even an average level film because it "would be over their heads," not doing certain simulations because they might have to be partially rewritten, or not using a filmstrip because the projector is not in the room and the teacher really has not planned far enough ahead to have one there.

With other students a teacher can, on occasion, be only partially prepared and cover up by lecturing, discussing a current topic, or showing a film only slightly related to the subject. Handicapped students usually will not allow a teacher to get away with this as often as other students will. Discipline problems appear very quickly, or students may just go to sleep. Well-planned and varied lessons are always essential in a history classroom. Planning takes on an even more important role for socially, intellectually or academically handicapped students. Not only must they always be working on a level they can handle, they must also be kept busy with activities that can be completed in a relatively short time.

What kind of history-related activities work best with handicapped students and how should teachers use them? These students are at their best when they are reading about or discussing something and they know they will have an immediate follow-up activity pertaining directly to the topic. If the teacher has led the discussion on a level the students can understand, they will do very well on the following activity. They may then leave the class with a positive feeling about having done a good job and a feeling that history is not all that bad. Student success will happen only if the teacher has planned an activity that is very appropriate to the topic and the students. This may be a short puzzle, a set of questions the students can easily handle, a map exercise, or a word study drill.

The approaches mentioned here with references to teaching history to high school students would be appropriate to almost any discipline, but they are essential for a teacher to be successful in a history classroom composed of handicapped students. The twenty-minute attention span rule applies to these students more than it does to any other high school students. If an activity is taking too long, the students' built-in time clocks begin to alarm by sending out signals of fidgeting, putting heads down, or day dreaming. Teachers who do not have an ear attuned to these alarms will see the class fall apart very quickly.

It is a great asset to have a good high school history text which contains activities appropriate to the students' level. These students often need the security of a textbook. It gives them a feeling of having direction and continuity—two necessary ingredients in classrooms with handicapped students. Students need to see the flow of history as it goes from one topic to the next. They often have the attitude that if something is in a text, then it must be important and should be learned. If it is on a handout,

they often dismiss it as having little value. Teachers can use handouts if they introduce them by showing exactly how they fit in with what is being studied. If teachers simply assume that these students can see how a handout fits into the total picture, it may be of very little value as a learning tool.

Non-printed materials can be the best use of time or the biggest waste of time, depending totally on how the teacher uses them. Still photographs with short, easy-to-read captions are very effective when used directly with the topic under discussion. For example, when studying the human beings involved in World War I or its bloodshed, students can study the faces of soldiers or civilians at the same time that the teacher is discussing their attitudes or hardships. Posters or cartoon enlargements can also help develop a feeling for something completely foreign to these students. Avoid displaying these visual aids and expecting the students to study them independently. They need guidance to direct their attention and develop their interest. Slides are also very effective if the teacher has several pictures to present to the class. However, the effectiveness of slides is lost if there are only four or five. The commotion of adjusting the room for a very short period of time causes students to be distracted, and they have difficulty readjusting their attention quickly.

Films and filmstrips also require a special approach. Because most history films and filmstrips are very factually oriented, they are not good tools for introducing a topic. The students generally know very little about the topic or people involved so they have nothing with which to relate. The presentation goes over their heads and the time is often wasted. If, however, the teacher waits to use the same film or filmstrip after the students have familiarized themselves with what they are studying, then the audio-visual can become an extremely successful tool for review. It must be reemphasized that the material has to be on a level the students can understand if it is to be effective. Teachers need to pay close attention to the vocabulary of the narration. If it is of an extremely high level, the teacher must then decide if the visual content is effective enough to make up for the lack of comprehensible narration. Showing films or filmstrips just to have another activity or because the students encourage it is self-defeating for a history teacher. A classroom goal should be to develop a positive attitude toward history, and this will definitely not be accomplished with materials the students cannot understand.

Very few published history simulations or games can be used with handicapped students without some alterations by the teacher. The vocabulary and/or the degree of difficulty of the research questions are two big problems when trying to use a high school simulation. The teacher must either spend the time to rework the activities or leave them out. Students enjoy short simulations which they understand and which require little inductive reasoning. A teacher must be very resourceful to use published materials effectively because they often include much more than the handicapped student has time to learn.

Teachers must have their own, well-considered course outline to help in deciding which historical events, people, and places should be included and which should be omitted. The amount of time handicapped students need to learn the material must be a continuing factor. To go over something in three or four different ways takes a tremendous amount of time. This must be done, however, if the students are to leave the class with any lasting knowledge. Is it worth the necessary two weeks to teach the economic intricacies of the American farm problems of the late 1800's? Questions like this must be answered early in the development of the course. Because history teachers often want to teach everything, they have difficulty excluding some people and topics. Eliminating a considerable amount of content is necessary, however, if the class is scheduled along the traditional lines of high school time allocations.

Handicapped students can really learn history and enjoy it. But the classroom must be filled with the positive feelings of a teacher who enjoys his/her subject and enjoys teaching it to the students who are there. If the teacher has an understanding of these special students and the skills to use historical materials wisely, then history will no longer be a trauma for handicapped students.

9. TEACHING SOCIAL STUDIES TO LOW-ACHIEVING STUDENTS IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

by Douglas E. Wiseman, Anthony K. Van Reusen, and L. Kay Hartwell

Modification of content and method of presentation can be difficult for the high school teacher in a multistrata classroom. The common model for developing and teaching social studies courses is inappropriate for a widely diverse, stratified group. The Parallel Alternate Curriculum plan for the high school classroom stresses what is learned rather than how it is learned and demonstrates a method by which standards may be set and achieved by all students being taught. The authors are associated with the Department of Special Education at Arizona State University, Tempe.

The composition of the American secondary school has been dramatically changing over the past 80 years. In 1900, approximately ten percent of the adolescent age group entered secondary schools. By 1960, this number had increased to nearly 50 percent. In 1978, in excess of 90 percent of American youth had enrolled in high schools. This extraordinary growth pattern has resulted in a population of students that very closely resembles the multistrata composition of the general population, including gifted, regular, low-achieving, and handicapped persons.

The task of teaching a multistrata population of students in a secondary social studies classroom is a complex and often difficult undertaking. The common model for developing and teaching social studies courses is inappropriate for a widely diverse, stratified group. Unfortunately, few high school teachers are trained to modify content and presentation procedures for a multistrata population.

Generally, secondary instruction closely imitates the instructional philosophy, model, assumptions and style of university instruction. University instruction is based on an assumption of homogeneity of abilities and skills and is predominantly lecture and discussion with out-of-class reading and study assignments augmented with written themes and term papers. Assessment procedures are directed toward one level of ability. The "Guessing Game" mentality of assessment employed in the university classroom is particularly inappropriate for many high school students. The "Guessing Game" assessment philosophy states that given the text, lectures, assignment, movies, etc., guess what will be on the examination? Another scholarly approach assumption is that if the student is unable to profit from the instructor's favored methods of teaching, then the student does not belong in the class. The scholarly approach to learning is preferred by most high school and university teachers.

Despite the consistency found in instruction in most high schools, there have been efforts to experiment with alternative methods of instruction (Silberberg and Silberburg, 1972; Wiseman, 1971; McDaniel, 1971; Weinberg and Mosely, 1977; Alley and Deshler, 1978, Wiseman and Hartwell, 1979). The Parallel Alternate Curriculum (PAC) (Hartwell, Wiseman, and Van Reusen, 1979) was developed as an alternative system of instruction for teaching a multistrata class. The PAC is an instruction format that de-emphasizes reading as the principal information gatherer, but rather emphasizes the learning of course content by any method the student can learn by and/or any procedure by which the teacher can instruct. There is no favored method of teaching, only the use of procedures that positively effect learning.

In an attempt to deal with the problems of teaching a multistrata population in the secondary schools an alternative approach relative to the teaching of social studies will be presented. The suggestions included in this chapter were developed and field tested at the Demonstration Resource Center, a joint project of Arizona State University and the Mesa Public Schools, Mesa, Arizona. The teachers and administrators of Mountain View High School worked together with project staff to identify the basic problems confronted by teachers of multistrata classes and developed alternative measures to cope with the problems. The project was funded by a Child Service Demonstration Center grant, Title VI-E, U. S. O. E.

PREPARING TO TEACH A PAC (Parallel Alternate Curriculum) COURSE

The philosophy underlying the development and teaching of PAC courses is that students should learn the content of required courses, irrespective of their basic skills level. Boards of Education have included required social studies courses in high school curricula because of their importance in assisting the young adult develop into a reponsible and informed citizen. This goal of informed citizenship must supercede the goals of developing scholarly skills or preparing students for higher education. If the knowledge incorporated in a required social studies course is important for the regular or high-achieving student, then it is equally important for the low-achieving student.

This philosophy in no way negates the importance of the scholarly approach to learning, the relevance of acquiring and using sound basic skills, such as reading, writing, spelling and math, or maintaining high standards. On the contrary, for those who will require the skills emphasized in the scholarly approach, provisions should be made for their attainment. Basic skill proficiency should be a priority goal for secondary schools, but the false notion persists that students improve in basic skills while involved in content-centered instruction. Regular and high-achieving students do improve, but low-achieving students do not. Low-achieving students need direct instruction by trained personnel with appropriate materials and controlled practice in order to show growth in the basic skills. The teachers of social studies courses should not be expected to be responsible for the basic instruction of reading, writing, or spelling. Their responsibility is teaching content in any manner that it can be learned. It is not how you learn that matters, but rather *that* you learn. Establishing and maintaining high standards of scholarly excellence are worthwhile endeavors, but standards must reflect the ability levels of the students being taught. Just as the elementary teacher has differing expectancies for high, medium, and low reading groups, so too must the teacher of a required social studies course have distinctive or diverse standards for high, regular, and low-achieving students.

A basic premise in developing a social studies PAC course is that low-achieving students need specific details and directions for successful academic learning. Important vocabulary, events, persons, discoveries, etc. must be clearly identified and listed. This is a distinct departure from the traditional "scholarly" approach that expects the student to research and identify relevant content and organize it into appropriate conceptual frameworks. The basic skills, cognitive abilities, and experiential background of the low-achieving student makes the scholarly approach an unrealistic expectancy.

Consequently, since many secondary classes have a stratified ability grouping, provisions must be made for the learning needs of each subgroup. The gifted or talented should have constant intellectual challenge with optional and extra credit assignments, emphasizing activities that promote scholarly performance. Regular students require a dual emphasis in planning that will accent both learning to become informed citizens and experiences that will encourage scholarly skills and abilities. Conversely, the emphasis for teaching low-achieving students should be in developing content and techniques of instruction that will prepare them for citizenship. Traditionally, procedures for planning a regular academic course have emphasized a general scope and sequence for the class, lesson plans for the teacher, textbook assignments, and class activities. These were primarily for the benefit of the teacher, not the student. The direction of the planning was dictated by a hypothetical homogeneous group, a group that was assumed to have approximately equal intelligence, background, motivation and basic skills. This from of planning is inappropriate for a multistrata class. Preparing a course for a multistrata population requires a substantially different set of guidelines and purposes.

GOALS OF A PAC (Parallel Alternate Curriculum) CLASS

The goals in organizing a PAC social studies class are considerably broader than the goals for a class with an assumed homogeneous grouping. The primary goal for developing a PAC class is in assisting *students* to identify the scope and sequence of content, course expectancies, and activities they will be completing. In essence, the core or nucleus of the content is specifically identified for the student, including essential vocabulary, concepts, people, facts, locations, etc. The course syllabus, therefore, serves as a study guide for the student and a lesson plan for the teacher. Since the course syllabus in a PAC class is a complete summary of what is to be learned, it also serves as a review tool for absent students, assists the teacher in preparing tests that reflect the emphasis of the course, and serves as an instrument for communicating with department co-workers, administrators, evaluation teams and, especially, parents. The PAC planning guidelines will help provide direction for inexperienced teachers and provide a more realistic framework for experienced teachers who rely on the course textbook as the primary instructional guide.

The PAC planning approach has an additional benefit for the teacher of low-achieving students. As the teacher specifically identifies what is to be learned or what skills are to be acquired in the class, so too are alternative methods or procedures for presenting information to students and alternatives for assisting student performance.

Hartwell, Wiseman and Van Reusen (1979) identify and provide detailed examples of stages in the PAC planning approach. Briefly, the approach has seven general steps:

1. Identifying the general objectives for the course.
2. Developing specific objectives or learning outcomes for the course, including key concepts, persons, facts, vocabulary, etc.
3. Organizing lists of student activities and learning options, such as textbook assignments, lecture and/or discussion needs, term papers, audio-visual programs, study guides, other required or optional activities, tests, etc.
4. Developing unit content outlines to serve as class lecture notes for the teacher and an outline for class notetaking for the students.
5. Devising student study guides to assist in the learning, review, and retention process, including topic outlines, graphs, drawings, programmed learning sheets, word puzzles, etc.
6. Preparing tests for each chapter and unit along with alternative forms for low-achieving students, including taped tests, tests presented orally and/or recoreded by peer tutors on tape recorders, etc.
7. Compiling answer sheets or keys for the study guides and tests.

The optional activities discussed in Step 3 provide an opportunity for the teacher to provide broadening and enriching activities for gifted and/or highly motivated students.

There are several features that distinguish the PAC planning format from traditional procedures. First, if the student does not learn through usual procedures, then the teacher is expected to use alternative methods that will permit the student to learn. Secondly, the textbook is important for the teacher in developing the course, but learning is not dependent on the textbook. Students with poor reading skills can learn the content using other methods for gathering course information.

Finally, the PAC syllabus is highly detailed. In essence, the PAC course syllabus is an abbreviated summary of the text, with relevant content clearly delineated for both the teacher and the student. Preparing PAC social studies courses is time-consuming for the first unit or two, but project teachers indicated that after becoming familiar with the procedure, preparation required no more time than ordinary preparation. Both students and teachers reported favorably on the detailed course syllabi (Hartwell, Wiseman, and Krus, 1979).

ORGANIZING A PAC (Parallel Alternate Curriculum) UNIT

There are three general stages in developing a Social Studies PAC Unit: (1) unit guide, (2) content outline, and (3) developing and administering tests.

Unit Guide

The Unit Guide is a highly detailed outline of content to be learned and activities to be completed. The completed Unit Guide is to be supplied to the class, particularly the low-achieving students, so that the teacher can be assured that the students are well aware of the specific expectancies of the unit of instruction.

The Unit Guide has three major headings: 1. General Objectives, 2. Specific Objectives, and 3. Student Activities. The General Objectives is a statement indicating what generally will be addressed in the unit. For example, it identifies terms, principles, and concepts, facts and characteristics associated with the major governmental systems of the world.

From the General Objective, general outcome headings are identified, for instance, A. Identifies Terms, B. Identifies Principles and Concepts, C. Identifies Facts, and D. Identifies Characteristics. The outcome headings, therefore, become the major areas of concern when developing Specific Objectives.

The Specific Objectives identify in list form the information on which the students are to demonstrate performance at the end of the unit to show they have achieved the General Objective. Under each of the general outcome heading lists of critical information are developed. The lists are used in three ways: first, to provide a specific study outline for the student; second, as a tool for review; and finally, as a resource for the teacher. The teacher can use the lists as a lecture outline, to determine if the emphasis of the class is being placed on facts or concepts, and to develop test items. As a rule of thumb, if the length of the list under each heading exceeds 15 items, the probability of the students' meeting the expectancy of the teacher is much reduced.

The Unit Guide also includes a detailed list of activities in which the student will participate. The Student Activities will clearly describe to the student alternative ways of completing textbook assignments, study guide or worksheet type tasks, research projects and/or term papers, and retaining information presented in lecture sessions. As the teacher identifies desired student activities to reinforce a unit of instruction, alternative methods for completing the assignments are listed. For example, if the assignment is to complete Chapter 1, alternatives might include: 1. reading the chapter, 2. listening to the chapter on cassette tapes, 3. listening to the chapter being read aloud by a peer tutor, 4. listening to a tape while simultaneously reading the chapter, and 5. reading a paraphrased version of the chapter.

Content Outline

An additional resource for the teacher and student is the Content Outline, which has the threefold purpose of serving as the teacher's lecture outline, providing a student notetaking outline, and providing direction in test item construction. The Content Outline should be written in the sequence which reflects the order of subject matter presentation.

An abbreviated example of a Unit Guide and Content Outline follows.

AMERICAN GOVERNMENT PAC

Unit I: Chapter I., *Magruder's American Government*, 1979, pp. 15-37. "Modern Political and Economic Systems"

I. General Objective:
Identifies terms, principles and concepts, facts and characteristics associated with the major governmental systems of the world.

General Outcome Headings:	*CAP*
A. Identifies Terms	90%
B. Identifies Principles and Concepts	80%
C. Identifies Facts	80%
D. Identifies Characteristics	80%

II. Specific Objectives (Learning Outcomes)
A. Identifies Terms
1. Terms that describe governmental and economic systems of the world.
a. democracy
b. socialism
c. dictatorship
d. republic
e. communism
f. capitalism
g. fascism
2. Terms that describe origins of state and power.
a. state
b. sovereignty
c. theory
d. government
3. Terms associated with forms of government.
a. unitary
b. federal
c. confederal (confederate)
d. presidential
e. parliamentary
f. dictatorship
1) authoritarian
2) totalitarian
g. monarchy
h. democracy
1) direct
2) indirect
4. Terms and people associated with basic concepts of democracy and definition.
a. majority rule
b. minority rights
c. equality
d. compromise
e. Abraham Lincoln
f. demos
g. kratos

B. Identifies Principles and Concepts
1. Concept of State
a. Body of people, occupying a defined territory, organized politically and having authority to make and enforce laws.
2. Organizational structure of government
a. geographical distribution
b. legislative-executive branches relationship
c. number of people who may participate in government
3. Political ideologies—Origins of state
a. social contract theory
b. evolutionary theory
c. divine right theory
d. force theory
4. Economic philosophies and doctrines
a. capitalism (laissez-faire)
b. socialism-economic collectivism
c. communism
5. Concepts of democracy
a. worth of individual
b. equality for all
c. majority rule-minority rights
d. necessity of compromise
e. individual freedom

C. Identifies Facts
1. Unique states in the world
a. population
1) San Marino—smallest
2) Soviet Union—largest
2. Political theories—important people
a. John Locke
b. Thomas Hobbes
3. Examples of types of government
a. Democracy

1) direct-Swiss landsgemeinde
2) indirect-U.S., Canada

b. Dictatorship—Russia, Cuba, Nazi Germany
c. Unitary—England
d. Federal—U.S.
e. Confederal-U.S. in Civil War and Articles of Confederation
f. Presidential—Mexico, U.S.
g. Parliamentary—Japan, England
h. Socialist—England, Sweden
i. Communist—China, Russia
j. Capitalist—U.S., Japan, West Germany

D. Identifies Characteristics
1. Of state
a. population
b. territory
c. sovereignty
d. government
2. Of organizational structure of Government
a. Geographic distribution
1) unitary: central government, individual
2) federal: strong national government, strong state government
3) confederal: weak central government, strong state government
b. Number who participate
1) Democracy: government of the people
2) Dictatorship: government by one or few
c. Executive-Legislative relationship
1) presidential: separate chief executive
2) parliamentary: prime minister part of legislature
3. Test to determine democracy
a. free press
b. free elections
c. written constitution
d. presence of political parties

III. Student Activities (learning options)
A. Reading from text: *Magruder's American Government*, Chapter 1, pp 15-37.
1. Read the chapter
2. Listen to the chapter on cassette tape
3. Peer tutor read the chapter
4. Follow the book along with a tape
5. Paraphrase the reading material and then read it

B. Lecture
1. Notetaking—view graphs, charts, overhead transparencies
2. Tape record the lecture
3. Have good notetakers copy the notes
4. Summarize the notes by peers/tutors
5. Discuss notes in small groups or with tutors in groups

C. Study Guides/Worksheets/Paper-pencil activities
1. Each student fill out own
2. Small groups work together
3. Tutors aid the student
4. Use tape recorders to aid search for material

D. Filmstrips, Movies (view the following)
1. Film—"Marxism: The Theory that Split a World"
2. Filmstrip-"Comparative World Governments"—4 parts

E. Research Project on selected government
1. Each student choose a government form and do research, written or oral.
2. Small groups, slow and fast student mix. Research and present their findings orally or written.
3. Bulletin boards, small group or individuals

CONTENT OUTLINE—UNIT I.

I. Governments in the World Today
A. The State
1. Population
2. Territory
3. Sovereignty
4. Government

B. Origin of State
1. Force Theory or Elitist Theory
2. Evolutionary Theory
3. Divine Right Theory
4. Social Contract Theory

C. Forms of Government
1. Classified by geographic distribution
a. Unitary government
b. Federal government
c. Confederal government
2. Classified by the relationship between executive and legislature
a. Presidential government
b. Parliamentary government
3. Classified by the number who may participate in government
a. Dictatorship (Monarchy, Totalitarianism, Authoritarianism)
b. Democracy

D. Concepts of Democracy
1. Fundamental worth of individuals
2. Equality of all people
3. Majority rule-minority rights
4. Need for compromise
5. Individual freedoms

E. Criteria for determining whether or not a state is a democracy

1. Constitution (written)
2. Free press
3. Political parties
4. Elections open to all
5. Individual rule-minority rights

II. Comparative Economic-Political Systems
   A. Capitalism
      1. Characteristics
      2. Political systems
      3. Examples
   B. Socialism
      1. Characteristics
      2. Political systems
      3. Examples
   C. Communism
      1. Characteristics
      2. Political systems
      3. Examples

Developing and Administering Tests

Assessing the low-achiever in a multistrata class requires special consideration in terms of test construction and alternate methods of testing.

Test Construction: The content of tests for low-achievers should measure a representative sample of the unit's Instructional Objectives. In essence, the items for the test should be selected only from the lists compiled under the Specific Objectives. Additional questions, that is, items not included in the Unit Guide, might be added as extra credit questions for regular and high-achieving students.

While constructing a test, a teacher will find that close adherence to the Unit Guide will assist him/her in deciding the emphasis to place on each objective, since some objectives would be regarded as more important then others, and also to reflect the instruction time spent on each general heading. This will help eliminate the "Guessing Game" mentality in testing that has been practiced at the University level and in some secondary schools. In teaching the low-achiever, it is important that the specific knowledge to be learned is clearly identified and that the tests clearly reflect the delineated knowledge. It is less important how a low-achiever learns than *that* he/she learns.

Test construction that closely parallels the Unit Guide has an additional benefit. Analysis of student test performance will provide feedback to the teacher on the relative effectiveness of the teaching or presentation methods.

The learning characteristics of low-achievers also provide direction in test construction. Low-achievers have many characteristics that hinder academic learning, such as impoverished experiential backgrounds, language deficits, and reading, spelling, and writing problems. Tests, such as essay examinations, may not accurately reflect what the student knows, only what the student can write. Low-achievers seem to do best on objective tests, such as multiple choice, matching, true-false, and fill-in-the-blank formats (Gronlund, 1973). Essay items may well be used as extra credit items for regular and high-achieving students.

Alternate Methods of Testing: The method of testing selected depends in large part on the purpose of the test. Tests can be utilized as an instructional tool, a review approach, or to provide feedback on knowledge acquired. Different methods would be employed to test inferential as opposed to factual knowledge. Once the purpose of the test has been established along with the criterion for acceptable performance, the test method can be selected. Some examples of alternate test formats are:

1. Open Tests. Open Tests permit the student to utilize other resources including books, open notes and use of study guides, etc. This format generally utilizes short answer and essay responses and is particularly effective as an instructional tool to learn new material or as a review activity.
2. Teacher reads test aloud. Since some students do not read well, the teacher reading the test items aloud will assist many low-achievers. Some teachers write the test items on the chalkboard or on overhead projector transparencies and read each item aloud to the class.
3. Reduced reading level tests. Particularly for students with poor reading skills, reducing the readability level of the test items to a lower reading level will assist many low-achievers. Reducing the number of polysyllabic words will be helpful. Many ideas in academic classes are commonly expressed in language far more complex than is necessary.
4. Taped tests. The teacher or a student assistant records the test on a cassette tape recorder. Selected students listen to the prerecorded test and respond on an answer sheet.
5. Small group tests. Students divide into groups from two to five and work together jointly to answer test questions. This format is particularly effective for learning new material, integrating new with old knowledge, and review. In addition, high and regular achievers in the group can provide good models of learning.

6. Student-made tests. Students, either individually or in small groups, are assigned to develop test questions over a given unit of instruction. Two grades are given, one for the quality and comprehensiveness of the questions, and the other for answering the question.

7. Take-home tests. This format has several advantages for the low-achiever, including no time restrictions, the opportunity to work with others (parents, siblings, paid tutors, etc.), having the paper proofread and typed by others and increased student contact with assigned subject matter.

8. Alternate project for test. In some instances, teachers may wish to substitute a project for a test. A low-functioning, bilingual student, for example, may be assigned to complete a hands-on project in lieu of the unit test.

9. Oral tests. Some students with inadequate handwriting or expositional skills may be tested utilizing oral responses. Special education teachers, peer tutors, adult volunteers, etc. can administer the test and record the responses in writing. An alternate recording procedure could be the use of tape recorders.

10. Oral reports on unit content. Students who do not respond well to test situations may well indicate the extent of their knowledge in an oral report to the class or teacher.

11. Question-pool approach. The teacher or a group of teachers construct test items that could be used for the total course of studies. The students are provided with the questions at the beginning of the semester. They are informed that some of the questions will be used on their exams. The students then learn all of the responses in order to take the exam. Students may study with parents, friends, classmates or be given the answers by the teacher. The final test is comprised of a sample of items from the pool of questions.

12. Individual conferencing. A few students may require individual conferencing sessions with the teacher to determine the extent of learning that has been accomplished.

In assessing the low-achiever within the PAC approach, a different testing mind set is in order. In PAC, the student is competing against the material, not other students. The criteria for adequate performance might be set arbitrarily by the teacher at 75 to 85 percent correct responses for a passing grade. (Block, 1971) On-going monitoring of the students' use of the Unit Guide is generally necessary to encourage those who are perplexed or have inadequate study skills. Testing can be a satisfying experience when the student knows what will be asked, when he/she has a chance to succeed.

PAC also provides a fruitful experience for regular and high-achieving students. While the low achievers are collecting and learning the necessary facts, high-achievers can be assigned to truly scholarly tasks. These tasks can be delegated to extra credit assignments which make possible high grades as opposed to a passing grade. Special highly conceptual test items and in-class and out-of-class assignments can bring scholarly students in tune with the highest level of social studies.

In the true sense of the term, individualization is made possible in a PAC class. High-achievers perform scholarly tasks. Regular students are prepared for life and are introduced to mind-stretching activities. The low-achieving students are given the opportunity to learn subject matter, any way they can, that will prepare them for life.

The teacher receives the pleasurable feeling of maintaining high standards or expectancies while meeting the needs of a multistrata group. Knowledge is king! *How* the knowledge is presented is determined by the learning characteristics and needs of the students, not by tradition. Teachers will derive satisfaction in enlarging their repertoire of instructional approaches and knowing that their favored area of subject matter is being learned and mastered, albeit at different levels, by all.

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NEA Resolution adopted by the NEA Representative Assembly

B-25. Education for All Handicapped Children

The National Education Association supports a free, appropriate public education for all handicapped students in a least restrictive environment, which is determined by maximum teacher involvement. However, the Association recognizes that to implement Public Law 94-142 effectively—

a. The educational environment, using appropriate instructional materials, support services, and pupil personnel services, must match the learning needs of both the handicapped and the nonhandicapped student.
b. Regular and special education teachers, pupil personnel staff, administrators, and parents must share in planning and implementing programs for the handicapped.
c. All staff must be adequately prepared for their roles through in-service training.
d. The appropriateness of educational methods, materials, and supportive services must be determined in cooperation with classroom teachers.
e The classroom teacher(s) must have an appeal procedure regarding the implementation of the individualized education program, especially in terms of student placement.
f. Modifications must be made in class size, using a weighted formula, scheduling, and curriculum design to accommodate the demands of each individualized education program.
g. There must be a systematic evaluation and reporting of program developments using a plan that recognizes individual differences.
h. Adequate funding must be provided and then used exclusively for handicapped students.
i. The classroom teacher(s), both regular and special education, must have a major role in determining individual education programs.
j. Adequate released time or funded additional time must be made available for teachers so that they can carry out the increased demands placed upon them by P.L. 94-142.
k. Staff must not be reduced.
l. Additional benefits negotiated for handicapped students through local collective bargaining agreements must be honored.
m. Communications must be maintained among all involved parties.
n. All teachers must be accorded by law the right of dissent concerning each individualized education program, including the right to have the dissenting opinion recorded.
o. Individualized education programs should not be used as criteria for the evaluation of teachers.
p. Teachers, as mandated by law, must be appointed to state advisory bodies on special education.
q. Teachers must be allowed to take part in the U.S. Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services on-site visits to states. Teachers should be invited to these meetings.
r. Incentives for teacher participation in in-service activities should, as mandated by law, be made available for teachers.
s. Local associations must be involved in monitoring school systems' compliance with P.L. 94-142.
t. Student placement must be based on individual needs rather than space availability. (78, 80)

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